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The role of English in the globalized world and its reflection in current teacher training manuals

Didaktická reflexe globálních angličtin v učebních textech pro učitele angličtiny

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Abstract

The present thesis is concerned with the reflection of Global Englishes (GEs) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) in current teacher training manuals. The theoretical part introduces research into GEs and ELF with an emphasis on the pedagogical implications of the global role of English.

The practical part consists in an analysis of four teachers training manuals of British provenance published between 2011 and 2014. Using a qualitative content analysis (see Schreier 2012), the author identifies in the selected publications textual material reflecting research into GEs and ELF. The identified textual material deals primarily with the teaching of language (e.g. pronunciation teaching) and culture (e.g. cultural relevance of materials), but attention is also paid to the current role of English in the world. On the basis of this material, the author then evaluates how the selected publications reflect research into GEs and ELF.

The conclusion provides a summary of results, and suggestions for further research.

Keywords: Global Englishes, English as a Lingua Franca, teacher training manuals, ELT, qualitative content analysis

Abstrakt

Diplomová práce se zabývá didaktickou reflexí globálních angličtin (GEs) a angličtiny jako lingua franca (ELF) v současných učebních textech pro učitele angličtiny. Teoretická část práce představuje dosavadní výzkum v oblastech GEs a ELF s důrazem na pedagogické implikace globální role angličtiny.

V praktické části autor pomocí kvalitativní obsahové analýzy (viz Schreier 2012) rozebírá čtyři učební texty pro učitele angličtiny britské provenience publikované mezi lety 2011 a 2014. Autor ve vybraných publikacích identifikuje textový materiál odrážející výzkum v oblastech GEs a ELF. Identifikovaný textový materiál se týká především výuky jazyka (např. výuka výslovnosti) a kultury (např. kulturní relevance materiálů), pozornost je však věnována i současné roli angličtiny ve světě. Na základě tohoto materiálu autor poté hodnotí, jak zkoumané publikace reflektují výzkum v oblastech GEs a ELF.

V závěru práce autor shrnuje výsledky praktické části a uvádí doporučení pro další výzkum.

Klíčová slova: globální angličtiny, angličtina jako lingua franca, učební texty pro učitele angličtiny, výuka angličtiny, kvalitativní obsahová analýza

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List of abbreviations[1]

EFL = English as a foreign language

EIL = English as an international language

ELF = English as a lingua franca

ELT = English language teaching

ENL = English as a native language

ESL = English as a second language

GEs = Global Englishes

LFC = Lingua franca core

LFE = local form of English

NS = native speaker

NNS = non-native speaker

WEs = World Englishes

[1] See Appendix 1 for a list of the abbreviations used for coding.

1 Introduction

The last couple of decades have seen an increasing interest in the study of Global Englishes (GEs), in particular English as a lingua franca (ELF). A robust body of research has developed, tackling areas, among others, such as linguistic levels (phonology, lexicogrammar, pragmatics, linguistic flexibility and fluidity), the use of ELF in specific domains (business and academic contexts), and ELF as a globalized/globalizing communicative practice (see Jenkins et al. 2011).

Considerable attention has also been paid to the pedagogical implications of the global role of English (see Bowles and Cogo 2015). A number of studies have addressed various issues related to English language teaching (ELT), including pedagogical norms and practices (e.g. Dewey 2012), materials (e.g. Lopriore and Vettorel 2013), testing (e.g. Hall 2014) and teacher education (e.g. Bayyurt and Sifakis 2015).

While research into GEs and ELF has been very productive in terms of the pedagogical implications of the global spread of English, studies that have dealt with various practical concerns, such as the reflection of ELF research in coursebooks (e.g. Lopriore and Vettorel 2013; Dewey 2014; Quinn Novotná 2014), or language teaching awards curricula (see Dewey 2015), show that the ELT world is hesitant in integrating an ELF-informed approach. Although there have been certain developments, such as the inclusion of ELF in the Aims of the *ELT Journal* (see Cogo 2015: 8), they ʻhave not, however, reached all aspects of pedagogical relevance for teachers and practitioners, and have been especially scarce and non-reactive in relation to materialsʼ(*Ibid*.).

The previously cited studies (see above) on the reflection of ELF in classroom materials, particularly coursebooks, illustrate that there has been a considerable amount of research conducted in this area. Little consideration, however, has been given to how GEs and ELF research is reflected in literature aimed at English teachers. Using a qualitative content analysis (QCA) (Schreier 2012), this thesis thus seeks to explore *if* and *how* research into GEs and ELF is reflected in four recently published teacher training manuals (Scrivener 2011; Ur 2012; McDonough et al. 2013; Watkins 2014). In other words, the present research aims to examine the link between theory and practice.

The thesis is divided into six chapters. The present chapter, i.e. Introduction, is followed by a chapter providing a theoretical background to the study (see Chapter 2). The

theoretical background is first concerned with defining ELF. It then provides an overview of the individual areas of ELF research. The main focus of this chapter is on the pedagogical implications of ELF research, and how these implications may be reflected in practical terms.

The next chapter, i.e. Methodology (see Chapter 3), provides a description of the research procedure designed for this research. It introduces QCA as the research method used for the purpose of this study, and explains how the individual steps comprising QCA are reflected in this particular research.

The two subsequent chapters, i.e. Results of the analysis (see Chapter 4) and Discussion (see Chapter 5), are concerned with the results of the analysis, and intepretation of these results, respectively. Chapter 5 attempts to ground the results of the analysis in previous research, and thus illustrate how the findings of this study relate to the findings of previous studies into practical applications of GEs and ELF research as far as ELT is concerned.

The final chapter, i.e. Conclusion (see Chapter 6), summarizes the findings of this study, and draws conclusions as to the link between theory and practice in terms of the results of the present research.

2 Theoretical overview

2.1 Historical spread of English

Apart from being spoken as a native language[2] by millions of speakers around the world, English is also globally used by a great number of speakers for whom it is either a second language[3] or a foreign language[4]. The global diffusion of English can be explained by an array of geographical-historical and socio-cultural factors (see Crystal 2007: 29). On the geographical-historical level, the global extent of English is primarily the result of British colonial expansion, during which English spread to all inhabited continents.[5] The socio-cultural factors subsume fields as diverse as education, communication, international relations, the media etc. (see Crystal 2007: 86-122). It is due to the special role[6] that English has developed in these fields across the world that it can truly be called a global language.

To understand why English is a global language in more concrete terms, we must consider the historical perspective. Jenkins (2009: 5) speaks of two dispersals of English. The first dispersal involved transporting the language to America and Australia, and resulted in the creation of new mother-tongue varieties of English. The second dispersal, on the other hand, resulted in the development of the so-called New Englishes (see 2.2.2). While both the first dispersal and the second dispersal are crucial to the subsequent history of the language, it is in the first dispersal that we can find one of the answers for why English is a global language. Phillipson (2008: 24) ascribes the global status of English, among other factors, to the fact that it is the language of the United States, a major world power (economic, political and

[2] The term *English as native language* (*ENL)* refers to the use of English in countries where the majority of the population speak English as their mother tongue, e.g. the United Kingdom, the United States and Australia. Crystal (2007: 67) estimates that the total number of ENL speakers is 329 million (based on national population figures for 2001).
[3] The term *English as a second language (ESL)* refers to the use of the language in countries where English plays an important role, but it is not the main language of the country. These countries are usually former UK (e.g. India, Nigeria) or US (e.g. The Philippines) colonies (see Kirkpatrick 2007: 27). Crystal (2007: 68) estimates that the total number of ESL speakers is 430 million (based on national population figures for 2001).
[4] The term *English as a foreign language (EFL)* refers to the English learned by students in countries (e.g. China, Czech Republic, Germany) where English does not play an important role in everyday life (Kirkpatrick 2007: 27). There are about 1000 million EFL speakers (see Crystal 2007: 68).
[5] For an overview of the historical spread of English see Crystal (2007: 30 – 59) and Jenkins (2009: 2-9).
[6] Crystal (2007: 3) states that ʻa language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country.ʾ English has achieved this status precisely due to its global use in areas such as education, international relations, the media etc.

military). Indeed, the position of English[7] might have declined had it not been for the rise of the United States as a world superpower in the 20th century (see Graddol 2000: 8).

Considering the above, we can see that the current status of English is attributable to both Great Britain and the United States. British colonial expansion transported English to America, which later contributed to its global spread. Prior to that, in the 18th and 19th centuries, Britain had become the leader of the industrial revolution, which again helped to secure the position of English. As a result of these two strands (Britain as the leader of the industrial revolution in the 18th and 19th centuries, and the USA as a world superpower in the 20th century), English 'emerged as a first-rank language in industries which affected all aspects of society – the press, advertising, broadcasting, motion pictures, sound recording, transport and communications' (Crystal 2007: 120). In other words, important technological advances made by the British and Americans have had a global impact not only technologically, but also linguistically.

The global status of English was confirmed after World War II with the establishment of several international organizations helping 'to manage global reconstruction and future governance' (Graddol 2000: 8). The United Nations and its subsidiary organizations provide a representative example of international organizations in which most communication is conducted in English. Since the 1960s, two events have greatly contributed to the global status of English: granting special status to English in newly independent territories, where English changed its position from being the language of the oppressor to being the language of opportunity (see Strevens 1992: 30), and the development of computers in the United States (see Crystal 2007: 121). Such advances have had an impact on the use of English around the world. As the range of areas in which the knowledge of English is desirable (e.g. air-traffic control, international media, computing technology etc.) has increased, English has become a language that is no longer tied to 'one's nationality' or 'the historical facts of the spread of English-speaking colonies' (Strevens 1992: 31). In other words, English is now an international language widely spoken by people who are in no way associated with the territories where the language is used as a native, or second language.

[7] By the time the United States established its presence as a world superpower, English had already been spoken in many parts of the globe as a result of British colonialism.

2.2 Views on the global spread of English

The global spread of English has been studied from different perspectives[8]. These perspectives, or paradigms, differ in their outlook on the effects of the spread of English. While some scholars believe that the global spread of English leads to increasing homogenization (in line with the linguistic imperialism paradigm[9]), others believe that the process of the spread of English is 'one of hybridization by dint of the creative and agentive appropriation by speakers of local languages' (in line with the World Englishes paradigm[10]) (Kuppens 2013: 312). In the following section, I will discuss two of these paradigms, i.e. linguistic imperialism and World Englishes, which I believe are important for this research.

2.2.1 Linguistic imperialism

The dominant role of English on the global stage is not always viewed positively in all its aspects. Phillipson (2008), the main proponent of the linguistic imperialism paradigm, argues that English is a tool of linguistic imperialism. In his view, the dominant position of English is 'asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages' (*Ibid*.: 47). In other words, English is given more material resources than other languages, and those proficient in English are at an advantage as opposed to those who do not speak the language. Although the notion of English linguistic imperialism has been contested[11], it is important for our research as it reveals some important facts about English language teaching (ELT)[12].

According to Phillipson, the ELT industry is the main force behind English linguistic imperialism. Phillipson presents five tenets of the ELT industry that have been promoted around the world. These, among others[13], include the beliefs that native speakers are best

[8] We can distinguish five paradigms that describe the global spread of English *(*Kuppens 2013: 332-337).
[9] See 2.2.1
[10] See 2.2.2
[11] Crystal (2007: 24) opposes linguistic imperialism by maintaining the position that the use of English as the primary language of international communication does not weaken the role of other languages which retain their local functions. In his view, English as a global language is devoid of any implications of ideology and power.

[12] The pedagogical implications of the global spread of English are discussed in more detail in 2.4
[13] The five tenets are:
1) English is best taught monolingually
2) The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker
3) The earlier English is taught the better the results
4) The more English is taught, the better the results
5) If other languages are used much, standards of English will drop (see Phillipson 2008: 185)

equipped to teach the language, and that English is best taught monolingually. Although decades have passed since these tenets were formulated (see Phillipson 2008: 181-185), certain aspects of the ELT industry, such as a very strong realiance on native speakers, who are seen as ‘‘‘owners’ and ‘custodians’’’[14] (Jenkins 2011a: 933) of English, seem to be connected precisely with the beliefs that underlie the five tenets even today[15] (see *Ibid*.: 926-927).

2.2.2 World Englishes

The World Englishes paradigm sees the global spread of English as a process of hybridization between English and local languages. According to this paradigm, non-native English forms are not seen as inferior to standard English, but rather as ‘local varieties’ (Pennycook 2006: 20). These local forms of English (LFE), which are considered English varieties in their own right, are characterized by a ‘distinctive mixture of feature of grammar, lexis, pronunciation, discourse, and style’ (Strevens 1992: 34).

This paradigm is closely linked to the work of Braj Kachru, who created a frequently cited model of the spread of English[16]. In a revised version of this model, Kachru (1992: 356) distinguishes three overlapping circles: The Inner Cirle, Outer Circle and Expanding Circle. The Inner Circle includes the traditional mother-tongue varieties of English, i.e. ENL (British, American, Australian etc.). The Outer Circle refers to the non-native varieties of English found in Africa, Asia and the Caribbean, i.e. ESL. These are also termed *New Englishes* (see Jenkins 2009: 24), *nativized varieties* (see Kirkpatrick 2007: 5) or *indigenized varieties* (see Anchimbe 2009: 271). The Expanding Circle represents the use of English in countries where

[14] The question of the ‘ownership of English’ has been addressed by Widdowson (1994). He argues that English is not owned by its native speakers, and they have no right to determine how it will develop in the world. In his view, all English speakers, regardless of where they come from, have the right to adapt the language, and make it appropriate to their own circumstances. Attempting to control the development of the language would mean to ‘arrest its development’ and ‘undermine its international status’ (*Ibid*.: 385).

[15] The realiance on native speakers, which may sometimes be excessive, can be demonstrated by examples from the Czech Republic, too. In some language schools (e.g. Jipka Language School; http://www.jipka.cz/), students are automatically assigned a native speaker teacher as soon as they reach the B1 level.

[16] See Kachru (1985: 11-30).

the language has no official status, and is used primarily as EFL. The three circles overlap[17] to show that the divisions are not always clear-cut[18].

The term *World Englishes* was originally used to refer only to the so-called New Englishes, i.e. English varieties spoken in the Outer Circle. Nowadays, the label *World Englishes* is sometimes used as an umbrella term referring to English 'in all its varieties as it is spoken and written all over the world' (McArthur 2004: 7). As such, the term *World Englishes* can refer to either: 1) nativized varieties in the Outer Circle 2) all English varieties (both native and non-native). In recent years, many authors (e.g. Jenkins et al. 2011) have started to use the term *Global Englishes* as an umbrella term encompassing all, i.e. native and non-native, uses of English around the world[19] [20]. To avoid potential confusion, I have decided to use this term throughout this thesis.

2.3 English as a Lingua Franca

English as a lingua franca (ELF)[21] is defined as 'English used as a common means of communication among speakers from different first-language backgrounds' (VOICE website, accessed: 15 May 2015). The term *ELF* is used to refer primarily to interactions between speakers in the Expanding Circle who do not share a common first language. This does not mean that NSs are excluded from lingua franca interactions. In fact, ELF interactions 'can involve speakers from all of Kachru's three circles' (Cogo & Dewey 2012: 12).

Comprising speakers from different L1 and cultural backgrounds, ELF interactions are by definition very diverse, which is demonstrated by a proliferation of accents, lingustic forms, and communicative and cultural norms that come into play in such interactions. As may be expected from interactions involving NNSs, the language produced in such

[17] The overlaps seem to be implying that the situation is more complex than it may seem. However, the model itself does not stress these complexities. Several scholars have identified limitations with the model (e.g. the fact that it does not consider linguistic diversity). For a comprehensive list of the limitations see Jenkins (2009: 20-21).
[18] An example of this would be South Africa, a country that could be included in both the Inner Circle and the Outer Circle.
[19] In line with the Global Englishes paradigm (see 2.3.2).
[20] Although I mainly draw on ELF research, the orientation expressed in this study is not exclusive to ELF. Some authors (e.g. McKay 2003) do not identify themselves with ELF as a research paradigm, but their area of interests is very similar to that of ELF researchers. Since I did not want to exclude such authors, I decided to make use of the term *research into GEs and ELF*, which includes both ELF researchers, and researchers who do not identify with ELF as a field of research.
[21] The term *English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)* is the currently preferred term. However, other terms have been employed: *English as an International Language* (EIL), *Global English* (GE), *World English* (WE) and others. For a comprehensive account of the terminological complexities surrounding ELF see Quinn-Novotná (2012: 21-30).

interactions does not always align with NS norms. The ELF perspective, however, views such uses of English as legitimate, and does not measure them against a native speaker yardstick, i.e. it does not attempt to remedy the instances of language, or communicative and cultural behaviour, that do not correspond to the norms generally observed in NS interactions (see Jenkins et al. 2011).

Although English has been used as a lingua franca (i.e. a language used for communication among people with different first languages) for centuries[22] (Cogo & Dewey 2012: 1), its current status is unprecedented in that no other language has ever truly been a global language (see Seidlhofer 2011: 6). While other languages (such as Sanskrt, Greek, Latin, Arabic, Potuguese, Spanish etc.) have been used as lingua francas at different times in history, no language has ever extended as far as English.

It is thus not surprising that nowadays English has more NNSs than NSs (see Seidlhofer 2011: 2). The great number of NNSs is inevitably reflected in the ways that English is used for international communication. In lingua franca interactions, the functional aspect generally takes precedence over the formal aspect. What this means is that English as it is spoken for the purpose of international communication is not necessarily bound by native speaker norms (see Seidlhofer 2001: 135). Instead of conforming to ENL norms at all times[23], ELF speakers ʻcustomarily manipulate the linguistic resources available to them […]ʼ (Jenkins et al. 2011: 288). In this way, i.e. by making use of the ʻlinguistic resourcesʼ at their disposal, which may include standard English forms, non-standard (and often non-native) English forms as well as contributions from other languages (see 2.3.3), interlocutors are able to negotiate meaning, and meet their communicative needs.

2.3.1 ELF as a variety

The focus on function rather than form implies that ELF is not characterized by a stable set of formal features. Although there seem to be some patterns of lexical and grammatical forms present in ELF interactions (see 2.3.4), the intrinsic feature of ELF is that its form is variable (see Canagarajah 2007: 926; Firth 2009: 162). Due to the inherent variability of the language system, the form of ELF ʻcannot be characterized outside interactions and speakers in specific

[22] English ʻhad served as a lingua franca in parts of Asia (e.g. India and Singapore) and Africa (e.g. Nigeria and Kenya) since they were colonized by the British from the sixteenth century onʼ (Jenkins et al. 2011: 282).
[23] A certain degree of conformity to native speaker norms is inevitable. After all, ʻEnglish is Englishʼ (MacKenzie 2014: 9), and although ELF may diverge from native speaker norms to an extent, it must be intelligible to speakers around the world.

social settingsʾ (Firth 2009: 163). As such, the idea of language variety as a set of formal features is not applicable to ELF. Instead of being a variety of English in the proper sense of the word, ELF is a ʿvariable way of using itʾ (Seidlhofer 2011: 77).

Focusing on the functional aspect, Dunková (2014: 16) makes use of the term *functional variety*, which highlights the orientation towards the function of language in the so-called ʿcommunities of practiceʾ[24] (Seidlhofer 2009: 238). Within these communities, or ʿregional and global discourse communitiesʾ with a common communicative purpose, interlocutors jointly develop ʿshared repertoires for international/intercultural communicationʾ[25] (*Ibid.*). Although this conceptualization of ELF, i.e. one that employs the concept of ʿcommunity of practiceʾ, is supported by a number of scholars (see Cogo 2015, Jenkins et al. 2011, Seidlhofer 2009), it has also been questioned. While Ehrenreich (2009; cited in Kalocsai 2009: 28) endorses the conceptualization of ELF speakers as members of communities of practice, he stresses that such a conceptualization has to be based on empirically grounded evidence in local communities of practice for which there exists a more specific joint ʿʿʿenterpriseʾʾʾ (*Ibid.*). In other words, the broadness of ELF communication, and scarcity of empirical evidence, does not allow for the possibility of conceptualizing ELF speakers in terms of global communities of practice.

In a similar vein, MacKenzie (2014: 153) conceives of ELF as a ʿfunction of language – a widely used L2 in which it cannot be assumed that predictable StE norms (of syntax, morphology, lexis, phraseology and pronunciation) will be usedʾ. This view is rather modest in that it does not, unlike the previous conceptualizations of ELF, suggest that there are ʿcommunities of practiceʾ with their respective ʿshared repertoiresʾ for international communication. Although MacKenzie acknowledges the existence of such communities, for instance ʿthe academic communities recorded in the ELFA corpusʾ (MacKenzie 2014: 146)[26], he does not provide any further indications as to how the concept of ʿcommunity of practiceʾ may fit in with his definition of ELF.

[24] As a result of the changes brought about by the globalizing world, it is not always possible to identify a variety of a language with a particular community of its users on the basis of geographical proximity. Consequently, conceptualizing ELF in terms of communities of practice rather than language communities in their traditional sense may be more fitting.

[25] These are also called *virtual communities* (see Seidlhofer 2009).

[26] The ELFA (English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings) corpus may be accessed at http://www.helsinki.fi/englanti/elfa/elfacorpus.html

In the next section, I will explore how ELF fits in with the more traditional concept of EFL.

2.3.2 ELF vs. EFL

In the context of ELT, proponents of ELF have been keen on stressing the difference between ELF and EFL (see Jenkins et al. 2011: 283-284). The main distinction is that ELF is part of the Global Englishes paradigm, whereas EFL is part of the Modern Languages paradigm. This means that ELF, in spite of (potentially[27]) featuring instances of non-standard language, is considered a legitimate use of English.

EFL, on the other hand, is characterized by an emphasis on the approximation of a native variety (see Jenkins et al. 2011: 284). ELF and EFL thus represent two different perspectives: the ELF perspective is open to deviations (be they phonological, grammatical, lexical or pragmatic) from Standard English, and does not measure proficiency against a native speaker yardstick. The traditional EFL perspective, on the other hand, presupposes that the aim of English learners is to 'approximate the native variety as closely as possible' (*Ibid*.). While strictly adhering to NS 'linguacultural norms' (Seidlhofer 2011: 18) is essential in some contexts (e.g. when planning to live in an Inner Circle country), it is less important in lingua franca interactions, especially when no NSs are present (*Ibid*.).

The above claims suggest that ELF is not necessarily Standard English[28] used in international settings, it is in fact 'an emerging English in its own right which is being described in its own terms rather than by comparison with ENL' (Jenkins 2011: 2). While this kind of English, i.e. 'an emerging English in its own right', which is characterized by the presence of non-standard features, occurs in a great number of ELF interactions, we must also bear in mind that ELF, not being a stable variety, is by defintion very diverse. As such, ELF interactions may not be too different from NS interactions, particularly when involving NSs. In such cases, the language produced by speakers in these interactions will not be 'an

[27] Although ELF empirical research has been primarily concerned with interactions involving instances of non-standard language, I believe that ELF interactions, which may include speakers from all three (Inner, Outer and Expanding) circles, do not necessarily have to feature non-standard language. However, when they do, such language is not seen as deficient.

[28] Some authors, e.g. Trudgill & Hannah (2008), assign the label *International English* to Standard English usage around the world.

emerging English in its own rightʾ, but rather a kind of English not dissimilar from ENL, i.e. a native variety (in line with the EFL perspective).

So while it is useful to distinguish ELF and EFL on the basis of different attitudes (or perspectives) towards English, we cannot ignore the fact that for most English speakers (both native and non-native), ʿEnglish is Englishʾ (MacKenzie 2014: 9). The point I am trying to make is that ELF research, while claiming to be concerned with the ʿfluidity and variabilityʾ (Cogo 2015: 2) of the language, has placed too much emphasis on the distinction between ELF and EFL as two separate entities. As Sewell (2013: 5) puts it, ʿarguments that rely on boundedness (ELF versus non-ELF, or native speaker versus non-native speaker) must be approached with cautionʾ in order to accurately capture the essence of communication in English around the world.

In the following sections, I will provide an overview of ELF research into the various linguistic levels.

2.3.3 Phonology

In her book on the phonology of English as an international language, Jenkins (2000) identified phonological features that are necessary for mutual intelligibility between NNSs, and those whose absence does not hinder communication. Among the features of English pronunciation that contribute to intelligibility are ʿconsonant sounds apart from the dental fricatives /ð/ and /θ/, initial consonant clusters, vowel length distinctions and nuclear stressʾ (Jenkins et al. 2011: 287). Features that are not crucial to inteligibility involve the placement of word stress, stress-timed rhythm or vowel quality (as along as used consistenly). This led to the creation of the so-called Lingua Franca Core (LFC), a set of guidelines considered important for intelligibility.

Jenkinsʾs LFC has been a target of criticism (see Gupta 2006; Harris 2002; Savignon 2003), namely due to the fact that it has been widely misinterpreted (see Jenkins 2011b: 22-28). One of the most striking misinterpretations is that the LFC should be imitated by learners of English. This belief, apart from being misleading, conflicts with the ELF orientation towards variability. Acknowledging the variable nature of lingua franca interactions, the aim of the LFC was to promote ʿmutual pronunciation intelligibility in ELF communication […]ʾ (*Ibid*.: 22). This is done through pointing out the features of English pronunciation that are

crucial for intelligibility. The features that are not included in the core ʻare free for NNS variationʼ (*Ibid*.: 25). As a result, even when following the LFC, teachers and learners are still granted ʻfreedomʼ in terms of the model that they choose to follow (be it a NS one or a NNS one).

2.3.4 Lexico-grammar

Empirical research devoted to ELF has suggested that there may exist some emergent patterns across ELF interactions. Seidlhofer (2004: 220; 2005: R 92) presents a list of typical lexico-grammatical ʻerrorsʼ[29] of ELF that do not appear to hinder communication. These include, among others, dropping the third person singular *–s*, confusing the relative pronouns *who* and *which*, or inserting redundant prepositions. Not only does the use of these variants not hinder communication, but it also shows how non-standard forms can be effectively used to ʻget the job doneʼ (Björkman 2009: 225). As Dewey (2007: 131) observes with reference to his analysis of non-standard lexico-grammatical features in ELF interactions, ʻinnovative language use most often leads to effective interactionʼ, and non-standard usage ʻvery seldom results in miscommunicationʼ. When problems do arise, it is mainly due to ʻauditory problemsʼ or ʻphonological differenceʼ (*Ibid*.: 132). Hülmbauer (2007), who is concerned primarily with the use of non-concord question tags in ELF interactions, arrives at similar conclusions, stating that the ʻʻpotential patterns emerging in ELF all seem effective in communication despite, or even because of, their ʻmarkedʼ characterʼʼ (*Ibid*.: 29).

While research shows that the use of non-standard forms in ELF interactions does not usually pose obstacles to effective communication, generalizations about this ʻinnovative language useʼ should be approached with caution. This is pointed out byMacKenzie (2014: 141), who criticizes ELF researchersʼ tendency to ʻredescribe everything that SLA or ESL or EFL theorists would call errors or limitations as signs of creativity and/or savvy, contextually appropriate innovationsʼ. In his view, researchers sometimes promote an idealized image of ELF speakers who are almost invariably portrayed as extremely skillful communicators, which may not always be the case. Also, I believe that such idealizations perpetuate the image of ELF as a separate entity (see above).

[29] These features are labelled as errors because from the traditional EFL point of view, they are erroneous. From the ELF perspective, they are acceptable because they do not pose obstacles to communication. As such, ELF researchers prefer the term *ELF variants* (see Jenkins et al. 2011: 289).

Researchers paid attention to lexico-grammar especially in the early stages of ELF research. Recent ELF research has shifted from identifying lexico-grammatical forms to researching processes that underlie the use of such forms (see Jenkins 2015: 55). In the next section, I will thus focus on the pragmatic aspect of ELF interactions.

2.3.5 Pragmatics

As a result of the unstable nature of ELF, pragmatic strategies have been found to play an important role in the process of negotiating meaning. Such strategies are primarily characterized by convergence, i.e. ʻa strategy whereby individuals adopt to each otherʼs communicative behaviours in terms of a wide range of linguistic/prosodic/non-vocal featuresʼ (Giles & Coupland 1991: 63). Developed under the communication accommodation theory (see *Ibid.*: 60-67), the notion of convergence refers to a process whereby speakers indicate their solidarity, and enhance mutual intelligibility (see Hülmbauer 2007: 16). Convergence may be signalled through pronunciation (see Jenkins 2000), lexico-grammar (see Seidlhofer 2009; Cogo & Dewey 2012: 102-110), and pragmatic strategies (see Cogo & Dewey 2006). While convergence may occur in any interaction, it has been shown to play an especially important role in ELF interactions.

Cogo & Dewey (Cogo & Dewey 2012: 102-110) distinguish *receptive convergence* and *productive convergence*. Receptive convergence, i.e. the acceptance of a non-standard form on the part of the listener, is equivalent to the so-called *make-it-normal* strategy (see Björkman 2013: 34). The listener accepts the speakerʼs non-standard usage by not drawing any attention to it, thus contributing to the flow of communication. Productive convergence, on the other hand, refers to a situation in which the listener adopts a non-standard form previously uttered by the speaker. This is done partly for reasons of ʻaffective motivationʼ (Cogo & Dewey 2012: 107), but mainly to render communication more efficient.

ELF speakers may use a number of other accommodating strategies to remedy non-understanding after it has been signalled, or to prevent it by avoiding potentially problematic situations (see Cogo & Dewey 2012: 114-137). These range from those found in all types of interactions such as repetition, self-repair and clarification (see Mauranen 2006), to those more typical of lingua franca interactions. An example of such a practice is the *let-it-pass* strategy, i.e. the hearerʼs decision to let a potentially problematic utterance pass, and wait for the speaker to elaborate before they ask for clarification.

Although most research into the use of pragmatic strategies has been concerned with NNSs, it has been suggested that NSs also ʻneed to be able to adjust (or accommodate) their habitual modes of reception and productionʼ (Jenkins 2012: 487). Research has shown that NSs do accommodate their speech in ELF interactions with NNSs (Albl-Mikasa 2009: 116). They do so by ʻavoiding slang and highly idiomatic terms, using simpler vocabulary, speaking more slowly, providing explanations, simplifying complicated things, enunciating more clearly, changing things around a little, being more precise and careful, etc.ʼ (*Ibid.*).

The focus of ELF researchers has also been on the speakersʼ use of their multilingual resources. Some ELF speakers make use of code-switching (see Pölzl 2003) and translanguaging (see Cogo 2012). Interactants code-switch between English and their L1 to ʻdenote group membershipʼ[30] (Pölzl 2003: 10), thus signalling their cultural identity. Apart from the cultural aspect, code-switching and translanguaging are also used to negotiate meaning, and express a ʻspecific orientation to the talk (playful, engaged, irritated etc.)ʼ (Cogo 2015: 4).

2.3.6 Common misinterpretations

In the writings of many respected linguists, ELF has been either ignored (e.g. Crystal 2007), marginalized (e.g. Melchers & Shaw 2003), or directly attacked (e.g. Preisler 1990) (see Jenkins 2011b: 37-44). Despite ELF scholarsʼ efforts to clarify the purpose of ELF research (see Seidlhofer 2006; Quinn Novotná 2012), ELF continues to be the subject of misinterpretation.

One of the most common misinterpretations of ELF is that its proponents suggest a monolithic variety of English that should be taught to students around the world (see Jenkins 2011: 19). This claim could not be further from the truth as ELF researchers stress that ʻELF refers to dynamic, pluralistic manifestations of linguistic resources in an international setting […]ʼ (Ishikawa 2015: 39). Far from proposing a monolithic variety of English, ELF scholars actually endorse the variability of the language system.

As regards ELF in the teaching context, ELF by no means attempts to prescribe rules for learners of English. In her critique of ELF, Lurring (2014: 15), drawing on her experience of teaching English in the Czech Republic, expresses doubt as to the possibility of her

[30] A distinction is made between code-switching and the so-called *creative borrowing* (see Pölzl 2003: 10). In the case of the latter, speakers deliberately import ‘certain L1 concepts into ELF’ (*Ibid*.) to share them with their audience.

students settling ʻfor a reduced ungrammatical model as their learning goalʼ (*Ibid.*). Although published relatively recently (2014), Lurring's critique follows suit, and perpetuates the belief that ELF researchers wish to impose ʻa reduced ungrammatical modelʼ on their students. In the initial stages of ELF research[31], researches indeed contemplated the idea of codifying ELF varieties, which could potentially serve as models for learners of English (see Jenkins 2015: 54). However, ELF empirical research has since moved on, and the codification of ELF is not seen as viable by most researchers today. To the detriment of an accurate understanding of the most recent developments, Lurring (2014) as well as some other authors[32] do not consult recent ELF publications, and jumps to conclusions based on literature from the early days of ELF research.

The area that I just touched upon, i.e. pedagogical implications of research into GEs and ELF, will be dealt with in more detail in the following section.

2.4 Pedagogical implications

The global spread of English, and the subsequent internationalization of the language, have challenged established notions about English Language teaching. In recent years, there have been signs of increasing interest in the pedagogic implications of the internationalization of English (see Cogo 2015: 8). It is no longer self-evident that native speaker norms should be promoted as binding in all teaching contexts (see Howatt & Widdowson 2009: 359-361). On the contrary, due to the growing numbers of speakers using English for international communication in NNS – NNS interactions, it follows that a reconsideration of current practices, i.e. insistence on NS norms, may be necessary.

Not all English learners ʻneed or want to acquire native-like competenceʼ (McKay 2003: 43) due to a range of practical and attitudinal reasons. Bearing this in mind, one would expect the ELT industry to acknowledge this reality. However, as Seidlhofer (2001: 135) puts it, while great progress has been made in relation to the acceptability of indigenized varieties of English around the world, little has been achieved in regard to the position of non-standard varieties in the language classroom. She claims that targets in ELT are ʻstill determined with

[31] Jenkins (2015) described three stages of ELF research: ʻELF 1ʼ, which refers to the phase when researchers were mostly concerned with identifying features of ELF interactions; ʻELF 2ʼ, which refers to the phase when the processes underlying the use of such form were being researched; and ʻELF 3ʼ, the current phase, which aims to position ELF within multilingualism.
[32] See Jenkins (2015: 57)

virtually exclusive reference to native-speaker norms'[33]. Below, I will discuss these and other questions related to the pedagogic implications of ELF research.

2.4.1 Teaching/learning models

Since ELF-informed pedagogy challenges the long-established adherence to native speaker norms, it seems sensible to begin the discussion of the pedagogic implications of ELF with the question of teaching models. Two types of model are traditionally distinguished: exonormative native speaker model and endonormative nativised model (see Kirkpatrick 2007: 184-193; Phillipson 2008: 197-198). Students may benefit from an exonormative native speaker model if they are planning to live in an Inner Circle country, or communicate primarily with native speakers. In such cases, teachers and learners alike should opt for a native speaker model (which has traditionally been the case in most English teaching programmes). An endonormative nativised model, on the other hand, is likely to be chosen in Outer Circle countries where the local variety of English is socially acceptable[34].

As this research is primarily concerned with the teaching of English in the Expanding Circle, I will now turn to the selection of a teaching/learning model in this context. Learners in the Expanding Circle are most likely to be taught an exonormative native speaker model. This is also the case in the Czech Republic, where most institutions follow the British variety (see Sherman 2013: 132). However, for students intending to use English primarily in interactions with other non-native speakers, learning a native speaker model, possibly with a native speaker, can be de-motivating because it 'serves to let the students know that the model can only be attained by people who look and sound very different from themselves' (Kirkpatrick 2007: 188). And even if the students are taught a native speaker model by a non-native speaker teacher, the message may be the same: if the teacher is unable to achieve the prescribed model, there is little chance that the students will.

Naturally, a native variety is usually the only one that is available in the context of the Expanding Circle (unlike in the Outer Circle, where a local variety may be available). Since ELF researchers do not conceptualize ELF as a prescriptive variety that should be taught to students, the answer to the question of which model to choose in the Expanding Circle lies elsewhere. Kirkpatrick (2007: 193-194) proposes a lingua franca approach requiring a

[33] Though still relevant, this citation comes from 2001. Much has changed over the last 15 years, especially in terms of classroom materials (see 2.4.6).
[34] The choice of an endonormative nativised model can be advantageous in the Expanding Circle, too. An example of this is China, where a local variety is developing at pace (see Kirkpatrick 2007: 192).

curriculum consisting of three strands: First, students would need to be alerted to which linguistic features cause particular problems of mutual intelligibility (see 2.4.2). Second, the curriculum would need to focus on how cultures differ and the implications of such differences for cross-cultural communication (see 2.4.3). Third, students would need to be taught pragmatic strategies to aid successful cross-cultural communication (see 2.4.4).

As we can see, such an approach does not necessarily have to lead to a radical change in oneʾs teaching practices. On the contrary, the above-mentioned strands of the lingua franca approach offer a feasible way of implementing ELF into the classroom without having to change oneʾs ways of teaching completely. This is what ELF researchers have been emphasizing, i.e. the fact that ELF-informed pedagogy provides an alternative to current pedagogic practices, one ʻin which linguistic diversity is acknowledged and better understoodʾ (Jenkins et al. 2011: 305).

In the following sections, I will explore the three strands of the lingua franca approach as well as other areas which have bearing on the present research.

2.4.2 Language awareness

Language awareness, i.e. knowledge about language, has also played a role in traditional ELT, mainly in relation to grammar. Recently, it has extended its scope to include other fields pertinent to communication (e.g. pragmatics and culture) (see Wang 2015: 96). The role of raising studentsʾ language awareness is crucial for ELF-informed pedagogy. Jenkins (2006: 173) observes that teachers and their students ʻneed to learn not (a variety) English, but about Englishes […]ʾ, thus becoming aware of the implications that the multitude of Englishes around the world carries for international communication (not only linguistically, but also in terms of cultural concerns).

In practical terms, teachers can implement a number of activities that will help increase their studentsʾ awareness of English. These might include exposing students to different varieties of English through listening and reading, group discussions, promoting intercultural encounters, or encouraging students to keep journals in which they would record all instances of English with which they come into contact (see Vettorel 2015). Studentsʾ linguistic awareness can also be increased by providing them with explicit knowledge about the different ways in which English is used around the world. Regardless of which of the

above activities are employed, it is important that the teacher is an active participant of the awareness raising process, guiding students and monitoring their progress.

2.4.3 Teaching of pronunciation

Moving on to the problems of mutual intelligibility, i.e. the first strand of Kirkpatrick's lingua franca approach (see above), I wish to draw attention to Jenkins's (2000) lingua franca core[35] discussed in 2.3.3, which focuses on phonological features of English that are crucial for a successful interaction (the core features), and those whose absence does not result in miscommunication. By alerting students to the importance of the core features, teachers would help them develop pronunciation skills needed for international communication. The classroom time that would otherwise be reserved for the teaching of the non-core items could be used for other purposes. So, the learners would be encouraged to produce the core items, while the teaching of the non-core items would be limited to reception, thus enabling the learners to communicate with NSs (see Jenkins 2011b: 24-25).

Drawing on the LFC, Sifakis (2014b) stresses the importance of awareness-raising in pronunciation teaching. Encouraging learners to become aware of their own English accent as well as accents of different speakers will help them understand the 'intelligibility potential of their non-native accents' (*Ibid*.: 132). In this way, learners can shape their attitudes towards non-native accents of English, and come to the realization that non-native accents are not inferior to native accents. It is important that students know that they can be successful communicators even if their pronunciation does not match that of native speakers.

In the next section, I will focus on the second strand of Kirkpatrick's lingua franca approach, i.e. intercultual awareness.

2.4.4 Intercultural awareness

Intercultural awareness and its implications for cross-cultural communication have been treated by several authors (see McKay 2003; Vettorel 2010; Baker 2011). Since English is taught in a variety of different cultural environments for various purposes, it cannot be taken for granted that a cultural adherence to Inner Circle countries is always desirable. It is neccessary 'to be culturally sensitive to the diversity of contexts in which English is taught and used' (McKay 2003: 44).

[35] There currently exists a pronunciation textbook based on the LFC (see Walker 2010).

Developing learnersʾ intercultural awareness, that is the ability to evaluate the beliefs, perceptions and practices of oneʾs culture as well as culture of other nations, is important insomuch as it introduces them to ʿother ways of representing reality and communicatingʾ (Vettorel 2010: 28). In lingua franca interactions, which by definition involve speakers from different cultural backgrounds, such an ability is very useful, if not necessary. Developing an awareness of other cultures is crucial if one is to achieve what is termed *intercultural communicative competence* (see Bowles 2015; Vettorel 2010), i.e. the ability of the speakers to ʿadapt their English as it moves between communitiesʾ (Bowles 2015: 196). Some practical realizations of raising studentsʾ cultural awareness include reflecting on the studentsʾ previous intercultural experience (see Wang 2015: 111), or engaging in classroom projects with the aim of fostering intercultural encounters through communication with fellow learners from other countries (see Vettorel 2010).

In the following section, I will explore the final strand of Kirkpatrickʾs lingua franca approach, i.e. pragmatic strategies.

2.4.5 Teaching of pragmatic strategies

As regards pragmatic strategies, Cogo & Dewey (2012: 176) stress the need to raise the studentsʾ awareness of the role that accommodation skills play in effective intercultural communication. While accommodation skills and pragmatic strategies are ʿimportant, if not crucial to ELF communicationʾ (MacKenzie 2014: 171), there is no clear answer on how to teach them. Some of these techniques (e.g. borrowing and code-switching) come naturally to bi- and plurilingual speakers, and as such, they need not be taught. What MacKenzie suggests is that they ʿhave to be permitted: an understanding of the realities of plurilingualism requires abandoning the traditional language teaching of banning L1 use […]ʾ. An illustrative example of a teaching environment where the use of studentsʾ multilingual resources is permitted is provided by United World Colleges (see Quinn Novotná & Dunková 2015). These institutions, with their specific language policy and/or lack thereof, adopt a liberal attitude to language, one that values content over form. In such an evironment, English is used ʿin all its forms, varieties and functions to flourish as a mutually shared code of understandingʾ *(Ibid*.: 170). Such a ʿlinguistically fair and supportive environmentʾ (*Ibid*.: 167) enhances the development of studentsʾ pragmatic skills precisely by allowing them to adapt the language to their own (and their interlocutorsʾ) communicative needs.

There have been more specific proposals concerning the ways in which the teaching of communicative strategies could be integragted into the classroom. Seidlhofer (2004) suggests that language awareness should be taught in schools. In practical terms, this means that learners would be taught strategies such as ʻdrawing on extralinguistic cues, identifying and building on shared knowledge, gauging and adjusting to interlocutorsʼ linguistic repertoires, supportive listening, signalling non-comprehension in a face-saving way, asking for repetition, paraphrasing and the likeʼ (Seidlhofer 2004: 227). Concrete examples of how communicative strategies could be taught are provided by Grzega[36] (2015: 100). Among other suggestions, he lists the following aspects that could potentially serve as guidelines for teaching English as an international language:

> When you write an e-mail to make a room reservation to a US or European hotel, use would constructions. Do not use telegraphic style.
>
> Know that *free-time* makes Russians think of community, while citizens of the US, the EU and Brazil think of individuality.

Such guidelines, apart from explicitly teaching communicative strategies to learners, may also be viewed as a means of fostering learnersʼ intercultural awareness.

2.4.6 Materials in ELF-oriented pedagogy

Moving on to a survey of materials from an ELF perspective, I would like to focus on how the above described areas (such as language and intercultural awareness) have permeated current textbooks. Several authors (Lopriore & Vettorel 2013; Dewey 2014; Quinn Novotná 2014; Lopriore & Vettorel 2015) have reported on current ELT textbooks in terms of their appropriateness for ELF-informed pedagogy. Generally speaking, we may observe a trend to include topics focused on intercultural awareness, and raising the learnersʼ awareness of the different varieties of English. Two recent textbooks, *Global* and *English Unlimited*, both acknowledge cultural diversity, and the need to foster learnersʼ awareness of other cultures.

Global includes ʻGlobal Voicesʼ, a section containing listening exercises that feature both native and non-native speakers. While the inclusion of non-native accents is a step

[36] Grzega (2015: 99-104) introduced *Basic Global English (BGE)*, which is a ‘comprehensive and coherent instructional concept for English as a lingua franca’. The focus of this concept is mainly on developing learners’ command of communicative strategies for intercultural communication. While BGE and the ELF pedagogical orientation have a lot in common (such as the emphasis on communicative strategies and intercultural awareness), the idea behind BGE is that learners are introduced to a mere 750 general and 250 individual words. Such limitations are in contradiction with the beliefs of ELF researchers, who view ELF as a fully fledged language system.

forward, it must be noted that these accents are merely recognized, and are not meant to serve as models. In other words, the authors of the textbook acknowledge the importance of the global role of English, but the models to be followed are still those bound to the Inner Circle varieties (see Dewey 2014: 20, Quinn Novotná 2014: 13). Moreover, the passages that include non-native speakers are invariably monologues, which does not reveal anything about the communicative strategies that the speakers may potentially employ (see Dewey 2014: 20).

English Unlimited features a larger number of non-native speakers in the listening exercises, and their inclusion is specifically mentioned in the teacherʾs guide as being important for awareness raising (*Ibid.*). Inspired by Jenkinsʾs LFC, the authors of the textbook also lay emphasis on the teaching of pronunciation in the international context (by stressing the importance of nuclear stress, for instance) (see Quinn Novotná 2014: 14). In spite of these features, standard British English is still seen as the only appropriate model for language production.

2.4.7 ELF in teacher education

The question of teacher education in relation to ELF has been addressed by a number of scholars, most notably Dewey (2012; 2014) and Sifakis (2014a; 2014b). They both propose a framework for raising teachersʾ awareness of English, and transforming their existing belifs, which may not be consistent with the sociolinguistic reality of the language. If the current practices of teaching English are to extend beyond the traditional orientation on native speaker norms and cultures, it is necessary to move ʿbeyond the singularity that typifies current approaches in order to better encapsulate the diversity and plurality of communicationʾ (Dewey 2012: 163).

What this means is that traditional ways of thinking about language in terms of norms should be abandoned in certain contexts, and more emphasis should be placed on how the language is actually used for communication. This transformative process, or ʿreflective journeyʾ (Sifakis 2014a: 328), may be approached in different ways. One of them is *narrative inquiry* (see Dewey 2014), a technique through which teachers can ʿproduce personal stories of experienceʾ (*Ibid*.: 24), and thus reexamine their beliefs and practices. Another way of approaching this process involves two steps: first, teachers read selections from relevant literature on ELF and related topics, and then they engage in research projects that are specifically tailored to fit their teaching needs (see Sifakis 2014a: 328).

By engaging in this transformative process, teachers can ʻdefine ELF for themselves and for their teaching contextsʼ (*Ibid*.: 330). The fact that teachers can ʻdefine ELF for themselvesʼ, and accordingly assess how it might fit in with their teaching practices, is crucial precisely because there is no such thing as ʻteaching ELFʼ. Rather, it is ʻfor ELT practioners to decide whether / to what extent ELF is relevant to their learners in their contextʼ (Jenkins 2012: 492). This view is shared by Dewey, who claims that adopting an ELF-informed approach does not ʻrequire teachers to take on an entirely new and radical ways of doing thingsʼ (Dewey 2012: 162). So while it may not be necessary to change the core of oneʼs teaching practices, it is important that students are presented with facts concerning the spread of English and its different varieties. In other words, students should be made aware of the fact that there is not only ʻoneʼ English[37].

Related to teacher education is also the topic of literature aimed at English teachers, especially teacher training manuals. When exploring such manuals, we are faced with a lack of information related to the pedagogical implications of the global role of English (see Cogo & Dewey 2012: 170). Cogo & Dewey (*Ibid*.) observe that while these manuals provide abundant information on teaching methods and techniques, not much consideration is given to the wider social, political or cultural factors relevant to ELT. Jeremy Harmerʼs *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (2007) is cited as an exception since it includes a chapter dedicated to the global spread of English. Nevertheless, Harmer does not provide any indication of the possibility of incorporating these concerns into actual teaching.

On the other hand, GEs and ELF related topics have recently been included in prestigious exams for teachers of English , namely Delta[38] and LTCL DipTESOL[39]. This shows that the world of ELT, though slowly, is starting to take heed of GEs and ELF research.

2.5 The relationship between theory and practice

As evidenced by the previous subchapter (2.4 Pedagogic implications), GEs and ELF research has important implications for ELT. However, the relationship between theory and practice is not a simple one. Nowadays, teachers as well as other ELT professionals can choose from a large number of publications devoted to the pedagogical implications of ELF and GEs

[37] Awareness raising in some current textbooks was discussed above
[38] Delta (Diploma in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) is a professional qualification awarded by Cambridge English.
[39] LTCL DipTESOL is a professional qualification awarded by Trinity College London.

research. There are currently a large number of monographs[40] dedicated to ELF-informed pedagogy. These are published, among others, by all major publishing houses in the fields of language and education (such as Oxford University Press or Palgrave Macmillan). Apart from specialized monographs, readers can also consult various journals[41], such as the *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca (JELF),* and a number of other respected journals, for instance *ELT Journal* or *TESOL Quarterly*. The wealth of published material shows that the issues raised in this study are indeed very topical.

The question arises of how this vast body of research accessible through the above-mentioned monographs and journals translates into practice. The practical applications of research into GEs and ELF discussed above dealt primarily with coursebooks (see 2.4.6) and teacher training manuals (see 2.4.7). While there has been a considerable amount of research concerned with the reflection of GEs and ELF in classroom materials, particularly coursebooks (see Lopriore & Vettorel 2013; Dewey 2014; Quinn Novotná 2014; Lopriore & Vettorel 2015), very little attention has been paid to how research into GEs and ELF is reflected in literature aimed at English teachers, especially teacher training manuals.

I reported on Cogo and Dewey's (2012) observations about the scant regard for GEs and ELF related topics in teacher training manuals. However, Cogo and Dewey (*Ibid*.) do not provide a detailed analysis of the manuals, and their selected publications are not very recent[42]. This is one of the reasons that prompted me to conduct an analysis of my own. Choosing a different set of manuals (see Chapter 3), I will examine *if* and *how* the pedagogical implications of GEs and ELF research are reflected in a selection of current literature aimed at English teachers.

2.6 Concluding remarks

In this chapter, I sketched the global spread of English, and attempted to provide an overview of the main theories of this spread. It has been noted that English permeates virtually all spheres of human activity across the globe. As such, the language is spoken by great numbers of people, who inevitably use it different ways, often diverging from native speaker norms.

[40] Some of the most recently published monographs include:
Bayyurt, Y. & Akcan, S. (eds.) (2015) *Current Perspective on Pedagogy for English as a Lingua Franca*. Berlin: De Gruyter; Bowles, H. & Cogo, A. (eds.) (2015) *International Perspectives on English as a Lingua Franca*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan; Vettorel, P. (ed.) (2015) *New Frontiers in Teaching and Learning English*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishers.
[41] See Quinn Novotná (2012: 271-272) for a list of journals that publish articles on GEs and ELF
[42] Their selected publications were published between 2000 and 2007 (see Cogo & Dewey 2012: 170)

This is best illustrated by the use of English as a lingua franca, which is at the core of this chapter. After describing ELF both formally and functionally, I focused on its implications for English language teaching. I stressed that ELF-oriented pedagogy is not concerned with the teaching of ELF forms. Rather, it proposes that linguistic diversity, as well as language awareness and cultural awareness be taken into account. In order for this to happen, it is important that future teachers are presented with an ELF-informed approach to teaching. In the final subchapter, I touched upon the link between theory and practice, which is not straightforward. Although numerous publications on the practical applications of ELF and GEs have been published, it is not clear to what extent this body of research is reflected in practice, especially in practically-oriented literature such as teacher training manuals. In the practical part of the thesis, I will thus focus precisely on this issue, i.e. reflection of GEs and ELF research in a selection of current teacher training manuals.

3 Methodology

The empirical part of the thesis is concerned with an analysis of four teacher training manuals (listed below). Drawing on the theoretical part (see Chapter 2), it attempts to explore the link between theory and practice. When I use the term *theory*, I am referring to the vast body of research described in the previous chapter (see Chapter 2). The term *practice*, on the other hand, is used here to refer to practially-oriented literature, more specifically teacher training manuals.[43] This research thus focuses on how research into GEs and ELF is reflected in a selection of four teacher training manuals (see 3.1.1). The aim of the analysis is not to compare the extent to which the individual publications reflect research into GEs and ELF, but instead to explore if and how these publications as a whole reflect such research.

3.1 Method

Confronted with a large amount of textual material, I needed a method that would allow me to reduce the material, and interpret its meaning. Qualitative content analysis (QCA) (see Schreier 2012) was found to be suitable since it is 'a method for systematically describing the meaning of qualitative material' (*Ibid*.: 1). In its approach to describing the meaning of qualitative material, QCA is 'systematic, flexible, and […] reduces data' (*Ibid*.: 5). As such, QCA met both of my preconditions, i.e. reduction of material, and interpretation of meaning.

As the name suggests, QCA is a qualitative method. However, its origins lie in quantitative contant analysis (see Schreier 2012: 13-14). Although there is no sharp division between quantitative content analysis and QCA, there are a number of differences between the two methods (*Ibid*.: 16). While I am not going to list all of them, I would like to mention those that had the biggest impact on my decision to select QCA for my research (as opposed to quantitative content analysis). First, QCA focuses on latent meaning, whereas quantitative content analysis focuses on manifest meaning. Second, QCA is at least partly data-driven, whereas quantitative content analysis is at least partly concept-driven. Since I was primarily interested in interpreting latent meaning[44], i.e. 'meaning that is not immediately

[43] I use the terms *theory* and *practice* in two ways: they refer to the link between academic research (theory) and practically-oriented literature (practice); apart from this, they also refer to the content of the textual material present in the analyzed publications, which is bound to focus on both practical suggestions for teachers, but also the theory that underpins these suggestions.

[44] My decision to focus on explicit as well as latent meaning was influenced by the nature of the material. In many cases, the material provides explicit references to the use of English as a lingua franca, e.g. by means of using the terms *English as a lingua franca* or *English as an international language*. However, in a large number of instances, such terms are not used, and the relevance of a particular stretch of text is not immediately obvious.

obvious' (*Ibid*.: 15), and found out that a data-driven strategy, i.e. one that makes use of the data for the creation of the coding frame (see 3.2.2), was more fitting for my research, QCA seemed more suitable than quantitative content analysis.

Having explained why I opted for QCA, I will now describe the research procedure. Since Schreier (2012: 27) stresses the importance of transparency, i.e. acquainting readers with the exact steps taken during the research procedure, the rest of the chapter will focus on both the resultant product, i.e. the finalized method used in the main analysis (see 3.2), as well as the process by means of which I arrived at the finalized method. Drawing on Schreier's list of the steps to be followed in QCA (see Schreier 2012: 6), I will now focus on the individual steps in relation to my own research.

3.1.1 Choice of material

Two criteria were considered when choosing my material, i.e. the most suitable teacher training handbooks:

1) Publication date
2) Scope

Since I was interested in exploring how some relatively recent developments[45] were reflected in teacher training handbooks, it was important that the analyzed publications were as recent as possible. Also, I thought it important to include publications that had a comprehensive scope, i.e. publications that dealt with the teaching of language systems (pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary) and skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing) (see Thornbury 2006: 205). In this way, I would be able to assess how academic research was reflected in a wide range of topics.

Having considered the above criteria, I selected the following teacher training handbooks:

a) Scrivener, J. (2011) *Learning Teaching* (3rd edn.). Oxford: Macmillan.
b) Ur, P. (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching* (2nd edn.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
c) McDonough, J., Shaw, C. & Masuhara, H. (2013) *Materials and Methods in ELT* (3rd edn.). Chicester: Wiley-Blackwell.

I nevertheless wanted to explore these instances and include them in my analysis, hence the decision to focus on latent meaning, too.

[45] See 2.4 (Pedagogical implications)

d) Watkins, P. (2014) *Learning to Teach English* (2nd edn.). Peaslake: Delta Publishing.

The above publications met my criteria in the following ways:

1) Publication date - the selected publications were published between 2011 and 2014. As such, they are relatively recent. Some internationally popular publications were not included in the analysis[46] precisely due to the fact that they did not meet this criterion.
2) Scope - the selected publications are comprehensive in scope, i.e. they deal with the teaching of all language systems and language skills.

3.1.2 Research questions

The initial step in QCA is to formulate (a) research question (s). This step is crucial as the research question (s) specify the angle from which the data is to be examined (see Schreier 2012: 4). I formulated the following research questions:

1) Is textual material related to research into GEs and ELF present in the selected publications?
2) If so, is the content of the textual material oriented theoretically or practically?
3) Is it concerned with language forms, language awareness, pragmatic strategies or culture?

Below, I will describe the rationale behind arriving at these particular research questions:

1) My first intention was to examine whether the analyzed publications include textual material related to GEs and ELF research at all.
2) I was interested in finding out whether the textual material related to GEs and ELF research was oriented theoretically, i.e. whether it was of a descriptive nature, or practically, i.e. whether it contained practical suggestions for teachers.
3) Drawing on the theoretical part (see Chapter 2), I wanted to learn which areas of research into GEs and ELF the textual material is concerned with.

[46] An example of such a publication is *The Practice of English Language Teaching* by Jeremy Harmer, which is recommended to students in a number of university and other teacher training courses (see Appendix 2). At the time I started conducting my research (spring 2015), the fifth edition of this publication had not yet been published. The fourth edition, which was published in 2007, did not meet the recency criterion. As such, it was not included in the analysis. However, as previously stated (see 2.4.7), the fourth edition of this publication is one of the few teacher training manuals that reflect the global spread of English.

With these questions in mind, I then proceeded to build my coding frame (see 3.2.3).

3.1.3 Coding frame

Schreier (2012: 63) provides the following definition of the coding frame: ʻA coding frame is a way of structuring […] materialʼ. Since QCA is a method used for reducing material, and describing it in a systematic way, it follows that the way the material is structured is of great importance. As such, the coding frame is central to QCA.

In more specific terms, a coding frame represents a set of categories to which a researcher assigns textual material. As I stated above (see 3.1), two strategies, i.e. concept-driven and data-driven, can be employed when creating a coding frame. To ensure that a coding frame is sufficiently valid[47], a coding frame in QCA is always at least partly data-driven. In other words, a coding frame is sufficiently valid if its categories ʻadequtely represent the concepts under studyʼ (Schreier 2012: 175). For this reason, I based the coding frame on my research questions (see 3.1.1), i.e. concepts, which specify the angle from which the material is to be examined, but I also took into consideration the nature of my material to make sure that it is adequately represented by the individual categories. Thus, the coding frame at hand is a synthesis of a concept-driven and a data-driven approach.

3.1.3.1 Categories

The resultant[48] coding frame consists of a main category, i.e. general research topic, and its subcategories. There are a total of four dimensions[49] (see Fig. 1 for a graphic representation of the coding frame). Below is a description of the main category and its subcategories. The subcategories are further divided into additional subcategories, i.e. further dimensions. They are described in terms of what sort of textual material is to be assigned to the respective subcategories. The criteria presented for each category explicitly specify the aspects of research into GEs and ELF that are to be addressed[50].

[47] Validity is further discussed in 3.1.3.5.
[48] The coding frame described in this subchapter, i.e. 3.1.3.1, is the resultant coding frame. Although the present description provides some information on the process by means of which I arrived at the resultant coding frame, additional information will be provided in two other subchapters, namely The Pilot phase (see 3.1.3.4) and Evaluation of the coding frame (3.1.3.5).
[49] Schreier (2012: 65) states that ʻa dimension may be a main category with respect to its subcategories, and also a subcategory with respect to yet other dimensions in the coding frameʼ.
[50] Appendix 2 provides a selection of examples of textual material that was not included in the analysis, i.e. it explains in what ways certain textual material did not fit the criteria presented in this section.

Emphasis is laid on the subcategories at the lowest hierarchical levels, as these are the subcategories to which textual material is primarily assigned. The main category as well as the subcategories are labelled with codes, which match the corresponding codes in the graphic representation of the coding frame.

Presence of textual material reflecting research into GEs and ELF is an overarching category. At the same time, it is the general topic of this research. It subsumes two subcategories, **Practice (1)** and **Theory (2)**. The decision to create these subcategories was based on my research questions, i.e. my intention to ascertain whether the reflection of research into GEs and ELF is oriented rather theoretically or practically. Practice (A1) includes textual material providing practical suggestions for teaching. Theory (A2**)**, on the other hand, includes textual material dealing with theoretical descriptions, i.e. there are no explicit practical suggestions on what teachers should do.

Practice (A1) is further divided into two additional subcategories, namely **Language (1a)** and **Culture (practice) (1b)**. The decision to create these subcategories was based on my research questions[51], i.e. my intention to ascertain to what extent the reflection of research into GEs and ELF deals with language and culture, respectively. Language (A1a) includes practical suggestions for the teaching of/about language. It subsumes three additional subcategories, namely **Production (1a1)**, **Reception (1a2)** and **General (1a3)**. The decision to create these three subcategories was based on the nature of the material. In other words, other potential categories, such as grammar or pronunciation, which would probably seem to make more sense, were not feasible as they did not meet the requirements[52] for coding frames, especially the requirement of mutual exclusiveness. The present categories have a larger scope, and as such, they may encompass textual material dealing with both the traditional language skills, i.e. listening, reading, speaking and writing, and systems, i.e. grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. My decision to create these two subcategories was also prompted by the fact that research into GEs and ELF sometimes draws a distinction between production and reception as far as ELF-informed pedagogy is concerned (see 2.4.3).

[51] This particular research question (see 3.1.1) also mentions two other topics, namely language awareness and communication strategies, as these are important concepts in ELF research (see Chapter 2). However, when I started working in a data-driven way, it became clear that it would not be feasible to use these concepts as separate subcategories, primarily due to a very limited amount, or even absence, of textual material reflecting these concepts.

[52] The requirements are: unidimensionality, mutual exclusiveness, exhaustiveness and saturation (see Schreier 2012: 71-78)

Production (1a1)[53] includes textual material providing practical suggestions for the teaching of the language that students *produce*. This subcategory applies if the selected textual material reflects the following themes: 1) insistence on native speaker accents, varieties, models and conventions in relation to language production is not necessary, and/or 2) openness to non-native speaker accents, varieties, models and conventions in relation to language production, and/or 3) raising learners' awareness of the different accents and varieties of English in relation to language production.

Reception (1a2) includes textual material providing practical suggestions for the teaching of the language that students *receive*. This category applies if the selected textual material reflects one of the following themes: 1) the importance of exposing learners to different accents and varieties (both native and non-native) for the purpose of fostering learners' understanding of the different accents and varieties, and, at the same time, raising their awareness of these, and/or 2) the importance of exposing learners to features of NS speech in cases when teachers may not insist on learners's producing them.

General (1a3) includes textual material concerned with practical suggestions on the teaching of language. In some cases, it was found that textual material was too general to be incuded in either of the above categories, i.e. Production or Reception. As such, if a particular stretch of textual material does not make it clear to which of the two areas, i.e. Production or Reception, it refers, such textual material is assigned to General.

Culture (practice) (1b) includes textual material providing practical suggestions in terms of intercultural awareness and competence, and the content of teaching in terms of the cultures present. This category applies if the selected textual material explicitly reflects the following themes: 1) fostering learners' intercultural awareness and competence, and/or 2) content and materials not relating to one dominant culture, especially a NS one[54].

[53] See Appendix 1 for an overview of textual material assigned to the individual subcategories.

[54] The textual material assigned to this category is to explicitly deal with the topics formulated in the criteria, i.e. intercultural awareness and competence, and/or materials not relating to one dominant culture only. The reason why I feel the need to stress this is that all of the analyzed publications, i.e. Ur's *A Course in English Language Teaching*, Scrivener's *Learning Teaching*, McDonough et al.'s *Materials and Methods in ELT*, and Watkins's *Learning to Teach English*, include passages dealing with other aspects of culture, particularly culture of learning in different contexts. Such passages then include, for instance, topics such as cultural appropriateness of materials in terms of the materials being culturally sensitive, and not causing offence. While such topics are very important, I only wanted to focus on the aspects of culture that contribute to international communication, i.e. fostering learners' intercultural awareness and competence.

Theory (2**)** is further divided into two additional subcategories, namely **Global role of English (2a)** and **Culture (theory) (2b)**. Similarly to Production (1), the creation of the additional subcategories subsumed under Theory (2) was based on my research questions, i.e. my intention to ascertain to what extent the reflection of research into GEs and ELF deals with language and culture, respectively. The scope of these subcategories may thus seem to overlap[55] with that of Practice (1). However, it is distinctly different in that the textual material subsumed under Theory (2) does not put forward any practical suggestions, and it merely includes theoretical descriptions.

Global role of English (2a) includes textual material dealing with theoretical findings about the global role of English. This category applies if the selected textual material is explicitly concerned with at least one of the following topics: 1) the current proliferation of accents and varieties around the world, and/or 2) the changing role of English (from being a language previously studied by NNSs to communicate with NSs to a language used for international communication among NNSs), and/or 3) the impact of the changing role of English on international communication interactions in terms of communication strategies and the language used in such interactions, and/or 4) the impact of the changing role of English on current materials[56], and/or 5) the distinction between NS and NNS English teachers.

Culture (theory) (2b) includes textual material dealing with theoretical findings about intercultural awareness and competence, and the content of teaching in terms of the cultures present. This category applies if the selected textual material explicitly reflects the following themes: 1) fostering learners' intercultural awareness and competence, and/or 2) content and materials not relating to one dominant culture, especially a NS one.

[55] See 3.1.3.2 for the criteria used to distinguish the practically-oriented and the theoretically-oriented textual material

[56] This may seem to overlap with the two categories dealing with culture, i.e. Culture (practice) and Culture (theory). However, if a particular stretch of textual material deals with materials predominantly in terms of culture, it is to be assigned to either Culture (practice) or Culture (theory), not Global role of English.

A diagram representing the coding frame can be found below:

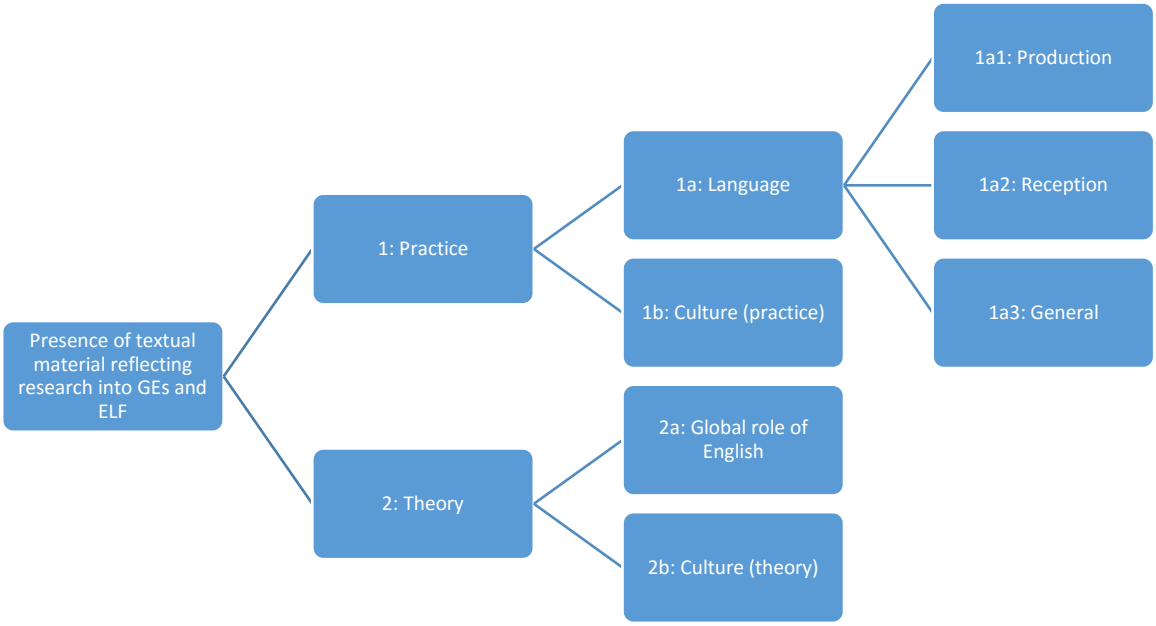

Figure 1: Coding frame

3.1.3.2 Indicators

Having described the main category and its subcategories, I will now provide an overview of the indicators which I used for assigning textual material to the indvidual subcategories. Schreier (2012: 99) provides the following definition of an indicator: ʻAn indicator is a sign that points to the presence of a phenomenon, something by which you recognise the phenomenonʾ. The main focus of this subchapter will be on the two subcategories at the second hierarchical level, i.e. Practice (1) and Theory (2). Drawing on the above citation, I will present an overview of the signs, i.e. indicators, that point to the presence of the two phenomena in question, i.e. practically- and theoretically-oriented textual material.

Textual material assigned to the subcategory Practice (1) often includes the words *students* or *learners*, as in:

1) Most listening comprehension texts probably need to be based on informal, improvised English, spoken by a visible speaker using colloquial pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, featuring both ʻnoiseʾ and ʻredundancyʾ and affording **students** opportunities to hear a variety of accents,

since these represent the kinds of listening they will need to be able to cope with. [U_RE_3][57]

2) In such cases, we could make a good argument that RP is not the most useful variety for **students** to learn […] [S_PR_1]
3) This suggests that most **learners** are best served by being exposed to a range of accents and varieties of English, with no one variety being given particular status. [W_RE_1]

The above examples also show that the content of the textual material can be easily paraphrased[58] [59] to sound like a suggestion or a piece of advice, for instance:

1) **Provide students with opportunities to hear a variety of accents**. [U_RE_6]
2) **Students do not necessarily have to learn RP**. [S_PR_3]
3) **Expose learners to a range of accents and varieties of English**. [W_RE_1]

Textual material assigned to the subcategory Theory (A2), and its additional subcategories, i.e. Global role of English (A2a) and Culture (theory) (A2b), does not provide any practical suggestions; as such, the content of the textual material into suggestions or advice is not as easily paraphrasable.

3.1.3.3 Segmentation

Being a follow-up step to the creation of the coding frame, segmentation means dividing ‘material into smaller units so that one unit fits exactly one subcategory within a dimension[60]’ (Schreier 2012: 134). These smaller units are called *units of coding*. They are ‘those parts of […] material that can be interpreted in a meaningful way with respect to […] categories’ (Ibid.: 132). The proces of segmentation consists of three stages (*Ibid*.: 139):

1) marking the relevant parts of your material;
2) deciding on your criterion of segmentation;

[57] The codes refer to the corresponding codes in Appendix 1.
[58] In Appendix 1, each unit coded for Practice is accompanied by a paraphrase to better illustrate the reasons for assigning it to this category
[59] No paraphrase is provided for [M_CP_1]. Since this unit is rather long, it was difficult to come up with a paraphrase that would sum up the main idea of the practical suggestion expressed in this unit. However, since the unit provides practical examples of projects that contribute to developing students’ intercultural awareness, the unit is considered as being practical, which is why it was subsumed under Culture (practice).
[60] This is in line with the requirement of mutual exclusiveness (see Schreier 2012: 75), which dictates that each segment can be assigned to only one subcategory within a dimension.

3) marking your units of coding.

Below, I will describe how the above stages relate to my research:

1) I first marked the relevant parts of my material. I did this by applying my research questions, as well as my coding frame, to the textual material, i.e. the four analyzed publications. If a particular stretch of text corresponded with the main category, and the subcategories, of my coding frame, I marked it as relevant. Only the 'primary'[61] textual material was used for the purpose of the research.
2) There are two ways of approaching segmentation, i.e. using a formal or thematic criterion (see *Ibid*.: 134-138). A formal criterion is useful if the material has 'an inherent structure' (*Ibid*.: 136). If the material does not have an inherent structure, a thematic criterion is more appropriate. In such cases, it is important to keep the coding frame in mind when segmenting the material. The four analyzed publications are clearly structured in different ways. As such, a formal criterion alone was not appropriate. Nevertheless, there are some similarities among the analyzed publications. These lie in the way that the individual chapters are structured.

   In all publications, chapters are divided into a number of shorter sections. In Scrivener's *Learning Teaching* and Ur's *A Course in English Language Teaching*, each chapter is divided into numbered subchapters, which are further divided into shorter sections introduced by headings[62]. In McDonough et al.'s *Materials and Methods in ELT*, chapters are also divided into numbered subchapters, but no shorter sections introduced by headings are present. As regards Watkins's *Learning to Teach English*, chapters are also divided into shorter sections introduced by headings, but these are not numbered. On the whole, each publication contains sections introduced by headings. Although the functions of these headings differ in the individual publications, and even within the publications, i.e. they may introduce numbered

[61] The term *primary material* refers to all textual material minus certain publication specific aspects of the material; In Ur's *A Course in English Language Teaching*, sections entitled 'Overview', 'Task' and 'Review' were not used for the purposes of the analysis as they did not bring any new information; In Scrivener's *Learning Teaching*, on the other hand, sections entitled 'Task' and 'Commentary' were used for the purpose of the analysis as they contained new information; In McDonough et al.'s *Materials and Methods in ELT*, sections providing practical tasks did not contain any new information, and as such, they were not used; The same can be said about Watkins's *Learning to Teach English*, which contained sections entitled 'Try it out!' and 'Summary'.

[62] Ur makes a frequent use of numbered bullet points followed by an introductory statement in the form of a heading. These bullet points, however, do not count as headings because they do not serve to introduce a new section (see e.g. [U_CT_1]).

subchapters, or merely shorter sections within subchapters, the resultant structure is somewhat similar.

As such, I decided to make use of this structure and consider it when creating the segmentation rules, thus using a formal criterion. At the same time, I also considered the content of the material, i.e. the thematic aspect, thus using a thematic criterion. What follows is a list of the segmentation rules reflecting both approaches, i.e. formal and thematic.

a) The paragraph was chosen as the basic unit, i.e. an entire paragraph is marked as a unit of coding even if only part of it matches the selected category.
b) Since the analysis is qualitative, and the nature of the material makes it problematic to determine the ideal length of a unit of coding, the individual units vary in length.
c) The first rule, i.e. marking the entire paragraph as a unit of coding, does not apply if two different categories are identified in one paragraph. In such cases, the paragraph is included in two separate units, and the part of the paragraph matching the other category is underlined, and enclosed in paratheses, as in [U_PR_7] and [U_RE_5].
d) If there is a longer stretch of text matching one category, and it runs over several paragraphs, the entire stretch of text is marked as one unit of coding, i.e. the unit of coding consists of more than one paragraph, as in [S_PR_1].
e) In order to limit the length of the individual units of coding, segmenting respects the boundaries created by the division of the text into sections. In other words, if there is a section heading, the text following the heading is marked as a new unit of coding[63], as in [U_PR_7] and [U_PR_8].
f) Since a unit of coding does not need to be continuous (as long as it respects the above-mentioned boundaries), there are cases where part of

[63] This boundary is not respected as far as U_CP_2 is concerned. Here, the two stretches of text (on p. 204 and pp. 207-208) are explicitly interconnected (thematically), therefore it would not make much sense to treat them as two separate units.

text had to be ellipted (for reasons of space). In such cases, the ellipted part is marked by the following symbol: ʻ….ʼ, as in [U_CP_2].

g) Every unit of coding is introduced by the heading of the section under which it is subsumed (to provide context, and make orientation easier). Where the heading does not immediately precede the paragraph. containing the unit of coding, the text in between the two is ellipted and marked by the ʻ….ʼ symbol, as in [W_CT_1].

3) I then had another look at the parts of material that I had marked as relevant and segmented them following the above segmentation rules.

3.1.3.4 The pilot phase

Coding refers to the proces of assigning segments to categories. It is recommended that only part of the material, i.e. 10% - 20%, is coded first in a trial coding before the main coding is commenced (see Schreier 2012: 146-165). The trial coding is a followed by a consistency check, which entails recoding the material after approximately 10-14 days. The results of the two rounds of coding are then used to assess realiability of the coding frame (see 3.1.3.5). If there are differences in the ways individual segments have been assigned to categories during the two rounds of coding, it is necessary to adjust the coding frame.

The trial coding and the subsequent consistency check showed that a certain number of units did not entirely match the categories to which they had been assigned. This concerns the categories currently subsumed under General, i.e. [U_GN_1], [S_GN_1], [S_GN_2] and [M_GN_1]. Originally, these units were assigned to either Production and Reception. After the consistency check I decided to change the coding frame, and create a new category, i.e. General, to better reflect the analyzed material. As regards the other categories, minor changes were made in terms of the criteria. An example of this would be the second criterion for Reception, i.e. the importance of exposing learners to features of NS speech in cases when teachers may not insist on learnersʼ producing them, which was originally not included in the category description.

3.1.3.5 Evaluation of the coding frame

In QCA, both realiability and validity are important quality criteria (see Schreier 2012: 16). A coding frame is ʻrealiable to the extent that it yields data that is free of errorʼ (Ibid.: 167). To

assess realibility of my coding frame, and make sure that it is free of error, I compared the results of the two rounds of coding (see 3.1.3.4). As a coding frame is said to be ʻconsidered realiable to the extent that the results of the analysis remain stable over timeʼ (Schreier 2012: 167), I was interested in finding out whether the results of the two rounds rounds of coding that I had conducted remained stable. As stated in the previous section, i.e. 3.1.3.4, the second round of coding revealed some mismatches in terms of assigning units to categories. Other than that, the results remained stable.

As regards validity, a coding frame is considered sufficiently valid if its categories ʻadequtely represent the concepts under studyʼ (Schreier 2012: 175). In other words, if the categories constituting a coding frame are able to capture the meaning of the material, such a coding frame is sufficiently valid. Although there are several types of validity (see Ibid.: 185), face validity is most useful when assessing the validity of data-driven coding frames (see Ibid.: 186). A coding frame shows high face validity if (see Schreier 186-187):

1) Not many segments have been assigned to residual categories[64].
2) Segments are distributed across different subcategories, i.e. the majority of segments have not been assigned to one subcategory over the other subcategories.
3) The categories of the coding frame are not too abstract[65].

As far as the coding frame presented in this chapter is concerned, no residual categories were included. Regarding the second point, the assigned segments, or units, seem to be distributed across different categories (see 4.1).

3.2 Concluding remarks

In the present chapter, I described the methodology of my research with respect to both the resultant product, i.e. the finalized method used in the main analysis, as well as the process by

[64] Residual categories are categories that ʻfunction as containers for all unanticipated information that is relevant to your research question, but does not fit into any of your substantive categoriesʼ (Schreier 2012: 93).
[65] While the meaning of the first two points is obvious, the third point, i.e. the one dealing with the issue of categories being too abstract, is rather vague. Schreier (2012: 18) states the following: ʻ There are no clear criteria for assessing face validity in this respect. But as a rule of thumb you should ask yourself whether your coding frame justifies the effort you have made in conducting your research. If your coding frame gives you results that you would also have obtained using a much less time-consuming quantitative procedure, your coding frame is probably underdifferentiated and low on face validityʼ.

means of which I arrived at the finalized method. In the next chapter, i.e. Results of the analysis (see Chapter 4), I will present the results of the main analysis.

4 Results

In this chapter, I will present the results of the analysis. The chapter will be divided into four main sections:

a) The first section (see 4.1) will provide an overview of coding frequencies. Since the aim of the analysis was not to compare the frequencies among the individual publications, the overview merely serves to compare the frequencies among the individual categories.
b) The second part (see 4.2) will provide a description of the individual categories in terms of the units that were assigned to them. The aim of this part is to illustrate how the coded textual material matches the criteria for coding (see 3.1.3.1), and raise relevant points that will be further addressed in the following chapter (see Chapter 5).
c) The third part (see 4.3) will provide two types of overview. The first overview is concerned with references to GEs and ELF literature made by the authors of the analysed publications. The second overview deals with the instances where the authors of the analysed publications acknowledge ELF as a research paradigm.
d) The final part (see 4.4) will provide a summary of the topics identified in the coded units. These topics will be then discussed in the following chapter (see Chapter 5).

4.1 Coding frequencies

The table below provides an overview of coding frequencies:

	U	**S**	**M**	**W**	**Total**		**Total**
PR	9	4	1	2	**16**	PRACTICE	**38**
RE	6	2	0	4	**12**		
GN	1	2	1	0	**4**		
CP	5	0	1	0	**6**		
GE	7	3	4	2	**16**	THEORY	**17**
CT	1	0	0	0	**1**		
Total	**29**	**11**	**7**	**8**	**55**		

Table 1: Coding frequencies – all categories

The table shows that a total of fifty-five units were coded in the analysis. Out of these, a total of thirty-eight units belong to Practice, and a total of seventeen units belong to Theory. The results thus show that there was a higher number of units coded for Practice than those

coded for Theory. As regards the individual publications, all but McDonough et al.'s *Materials and Methods in ELT* also contained a higher number of units sumbsumed under Practice than those subsumed under Theory:

	Practice	**Theory**	**Total**
U	**21**	**8**	29
S	**8**	**3**	11
M	**3**	**4**	7
W	**6**	**2**	8
Total	37	18	55

Table 2: Coding frequencies – Practice and Theory

As such, research into GEs and ELF seems to be reflected in the analyzed publications rather practically than theoretically.

The two most numerous categories were Global role of English and Production. A total of sixteen units were coded for both categories, respectively. Apart from having the highest number of units, theses two categories were also the only categories to be represented in all analysed publication. As such, all the analyzed publications somehow reflect research into GEs and ELF in their approach to teaching language from the point of view of production, and also inform readers about the global role of English. These two categories were followed by Reception (twelve units), Culture (pratice) (six units), General (four units), and Culture (theory) (one unit).

Thus, there seems to be a discrepancy between the frequency of units coded for one category when compared to other categories. This is especially obvious as far as Global role of English is concerned. Although all the analyzed publications include units subsumed under this category, the very point of textual material present in these units, i.e. the global role of English and its implications for teaching, is not always manifested in the other areas. Scrivener's *Learning Teaching* may provide an example of this. Although three units were coded for Global role of English, no units were coded for either of the two categories dealing with culture, i.e. Culture (practice) and Culture (theory).

4.2 Categories

The following subchapter will provide a description of the individual categories in terms of the units that were assigned to them. Only the categories at the lowest hierarchical levels will

be presented, as these are the categories to which textual material was primarily assigned (see 3.1.3.1).

4.2.1 Production

The table below shows that there were a total of sixteen units coded for Production:

	U	S	M	W	Total
PR	9	4	1	2	16

Table 3: Coding frequencies – Production

Out of these, nine units were coded in Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching*, four units were coded in Scrivenerʾs *Learning Teaching*, two units were coded Watkinsʾs *Learning to Teach English*, and one unit was coded in McDonough et al.ʾs *Materials and Methods in ELT*.

Starting with Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching*, the author is concerned in [U_PR_1] with ʿgrammatical, lexical, phonological and spelling conventionsʾ that students need to use for effective communication. She states that students should learn to use standard conventions. However, these conventions, she stresses, ʿare no longer necessarily those of native speakersʾ. Instead, they are ʿthose which are used by the majority of fluent, educated speakers of the language in international communicationʾ. Although the author states that the conventions that students should learn to use are no longer those of NSs, but rather those used in international communication, it is not entirely clear what these conventions actually are.

Similarly, in [U_PR_2], Ur is also concerned with the issue of conventions. Here, she states that it is no longer relevant what a native speaker would say in a particular situation, but what is ʿmost likely to be used and understood worldwideʾ. As well as the previous unit, i.e. [U_PR_1], this unit also deals with a number of areas, namely vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and spelling. However, in contrast to the previous unit, here the author provides examples of the forms used in international communication, or, as stated above, the forms that are ʿmost likely to be used and understood worldwideʾ. While specific examples are provided as far as vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling are concerned, for instance ʿ*two weeks*ʾ rather than ʿ*fortnight*ʾ, as ʿ*two weeks*ʾ is more universally used and understood, or ʿ*organize*ʾ rather than ʿ*organise*ʾ, no examples are provided in terms of grammar.ʿ

In [U_PR_3], Ur is concerned with the teaching of vocabulary. She states that ʿin order to know how to use an item, the student needs to know about its appropriateness for use

in a certain contextʾ. Although she is first concerned with appropriateness in the sense of frequency of use, the distinction between speech and writing, and formality/informality, she also claim that some items ʿbelong to certain varieties of Englishʾ. This implies that teachers may wish to raise learnersʾ awarenes of the differences between certain varieties of English if students are to use vocabulary items appropriately. No further information is provided on this topic, and it thus not clear whether by variety the author refers to the traditional dinstinction between American and British English, or a potentially larger number of English varieties.

The topic of grammar teaching is tackled again in [U_PR_4]. The author suggests that learners should be encouraged to use standard grammar. However, as in [U_PR_1], she also stresses that the term standard does not necessarily refer to a NS variety. Rather, it refers to ʿuses which are seen by most speakers as internationally acceptableʾ. It is not specified, however, what these internationally acceptables usages actually are. While she uses the term *variant forms*[66] by which she refers to non-standard forms such as ʿ*she like*ʾ and ʿ*the person which*ʾ, she makes it clear that teachers should not encourage learners to use these. It thus not obvious what she means by the usages not necessarily ʿassociated with the ʿnativeʾ varieties of English.ʾ

As regards pronunciation, the authors provides more specific suggestions than in the case of grammar. In [U_PR_5], she states that it is not necessary for learners to model their pronunciation on a NS variety. What she deems necessary, on the other hand, is that teachers insist on learnersʾ producing language that is intelligible:

> Students do not need necessarily to model their accents on English native speakers – indeed, some native speakers are notoriously difficult to understand! – but their speech does need to be clear. Some learners consistently get particular sounds wrong, and as a result their speech is less 'comfortable' to listen to, and occasionally incomprehensible. In that case, you may wish to spend some lesson time improving your students' pronunciation.

The focus on intelligibility is also apparent in [U_PR_6], where the author references ELF literature, and provides specific practical suggestions based on the LFC (see 2.3.3), though the term itself is not used. It is implied that not all phonemes must be pronounced the way a NS would pronounce them, but there are features that students should learn to produce correctly. She then provides examples of both features that are crucial for intelligibility in ʿinternational English conversationsʾ, such as vowel length, and features whose

[66] This is comparable to the so-called *ELF variants* (see 2.3.4).

mispronunciation does not usually result in communication breakdowns, such as the distinction between the phonemes /s/ and /z/.

The author's discussion of pronunciation teaching is not only concerned with the production of individual phonemes, but also suprasegmental features such as rhythm and intonation. In [U_PR_7][67], which deals with the teaching of rhythm, she differentiates between stress-timed rhythm, which is characteristic of NS speech, and syllable-timed rhythm, which features in the speech of many NNSs. In light of the current role of English in the world, the author proposes that it is not necessary for teachers to insist on learners' producing stress-timed rhythm. In [U_PR_8][68], Ur is concerned with the teaching of intonation. Similarly to [U_PR_7], the author takes into account 'the increase in the use of English as an international language', and suggests that 'it is not worth trying to teach the rules of intonation'.

Continuing her discussion of the teaching of pronunciation, the author concludes in [U_PR_9] that while it may not be useful to teach rhythm and intonation, there are certain features of pronunciation that must be taught. Referencing ELF literature, the author provides a list of features that are crucial for international intelligibility:

- **contrast between long and short vowels**, particularly /ɪ/ - /iː/;
- all the consonants, with the exception, as mentioned above, of the /θ/ and /ð/ sounds, which do not seem to be essential for accurate communication;
- in particular, **the contrast between voiced plosives** (/p/, /t/, /k/) **and unvoiced plosives** (/b/. /d/, /g/);
- **initial consonant clusters**, e.g. the /pr/ in a word like *proper*;
- **the use of intonation to signal stress of a particular word in a sentence**.

The list reveals that the included features reflect the LFC (see 2.3.3).

In the four units coded for Production that were identified in Scrivener's *Learning Teaching*, the author is concerned with the topic of pronunciation. In [S_PR_1], he encourages teachers to consider the following question: 'Which pronunciation variety are you going to teach?' He then goes on to describe the current sociolinguistic reality of English, in which 'most learners are learning English to communicate with other non-mothertongue

[67] [U_PR_7] is related to [U_RE_5], which is concerned with the same topic from the point of view of language reception.
[68] [U_PR_8] is related to [U_RE_6], which is concerned with the same topic from the point of view of language reception.

speakers, using English as a lingua franca […] and many will rarely – if ever – meet or need to speak with an RP-speaking native speaker'. As such, he continues, 'we could make a good argument that RP is not the most useful variety for students to learn […]'. He supports his argument by stating that the use of RP 'may actually hinder their [the students'] communication, as many people may not be able to follow them if they use RP features such as elisions, weak forms and the lack of an /r/ sound in words like *car* or *hard*'. Although he does not provide practical suggestions to the degree that Ur does in, for instance, [U_PR_9], there is a practical suggestion in the sense of encouraging readers to consider what type of pronunciation variety is most appropriate for their learners.

In [S_PR_2][69], the author poses several questions that readers should ask themselves before paying attention to some activities included in the next few pages of the publication. As the activities use RP as a basic pronunciation, Scrivener prompts readers to consider whether features of connected speech, which is the main topic of this unit, are appropriate for their students. The following question is of importance as far as language production is concerned: 'Is it appropriate for your students to practise recognising features such as weak forms and elision?' Similarly to the previous unit, i.e. [S_PR_1], the author does not provide a definite answer, and leaves the question open for consideration.

The discussion of connected speech continues in [S_PR_3][70], where the author, distinguishing between language production and reception, implies that it may not be necessary to teach students to use features of connected speech.

In [S_PR_4], Scrivener discusses the appropriateness of different models as far as the teaching of connected speech is concerned. As well as in [S_PR_1], he also poses a number of questions:

> But what is a realistic language model to expect students to produce? The very 'fluent' model I use? The sentence based on 'citation' forms?

He refrains from providing a definite answer, and states that individual teachers should make this decision. At the same time, he does not claim that teachers should only use a a native speaker model, such as RP. This illustrates that, similarly to the previous units, the

[69] [S_PR_1] is related to [S_RE_1], which is concerned with the same topic from the point of view of languge reception.
[70] [S_PR_3] is related to [S_RE_2], which is concerned with the same topic from the point of view of language reception.

author does not insist on learnersʾ producing native speaker pronunciation, and always encourages readers to consider what may work best in their particular situation.

The one unit coded for Production in McDonough et al.ʾs *Materials and Methods* in ELT, i.e. [M_PR_1], is largely concerned with pronunciation teaching. First, the authors are concerned with different types of pronunciation teaching, such as drilling, or focus on ʿcomprehensibility within fluencyʾ. They then explain that the different approaches to pronunciation teaching are the result of ʿdifferent beliefs and attitudes towards the kind of English that is the target of learningʾ. Since English is being used as a ʿcontant languageʾ for communication between people with different L1s, the traditional native speaker model, and the norms that go with it, are becoming ʿless relevantʾ. Interestingly, they make references to ELF as a research paradigm, and include a quotation, in which Jenkins et al. (2011) are concerned with the fact that both researchers and ELT professionals may need to find ways of appropriately integrating the variability of ELF into their teachings practices.

This is followed by a more practically-oriented section dealing with the teaching of pronunciation. In line with the current state of English in the world, McDonough et al. do not insist on learners imitating NSs, and claim that ʿa native speaker model is unrealistic for the great majority of learners, and ʿperfectionʾis an unattainable goalʾ. Thus, rather than insisting on learnersʾ producing ʿperfectʾ English, they suggest that teachers find a balance between accuracy (ʿperfectionʾ) and intelligibility. For this purpose, they provide a list of recommendations on how to increase intelligibility. The list includes recommendations on the teaching of individual phonemes, but also suprasegmental features such as rhythm and intonation. As such, their recommendations differ from those provided by Ur in *A Course in English Language Teaching* (see [U_PR_7], [U_PR_8] and [U_R_9]) in that Ur follows the LFC, and stresses that it is necessary to teach the features that are included in it (although the term LFC itself is not used), while other features such as rhythm and intonation do not necessarily have to be taugh. McDonough et al., on the other hand, include in their list of tips on how to increase intelligibility also features that are not part of the LFC. Subsequently, they mention the LFC, and question the necessity of teaching features such as sentence stress and rhythm. They also build up on the quoatation included in the first part of the unit by including another one, in which Jenkins et al. (2011) warn against the prescriptive use of ELF research findings. So while both publications, i.e. *A Course in English Language Teaching* and *Materials and Methods in ELT*, make references to the LFC, in Urʾs publication, the LFC is part of the tips on pronunciation teaching, whereas in McDonough et al.ʾs publication, the

LFC is mentiond in the discussion of pronunciation, but no necessarily reflected in the teaching tips that the authors provide. On the other hand, McDonough et al.'s *Materials and Methods in ELT* thoroughly engages with research into GEs and ELF, which is also evident in the fact that they acknowledge ELF as a research paradigm.

The two units coded for Production that were identified in Watkins's *Learning to Teach English* also have to do with pronunciation. Similarly to to the previous unit, i.e. [M_PR_1], Watkins discusses in [W_PR_1] the fact that learners do not need not to imitate NSs. He states explicitly that intelligibility is more important than insistence on imitating NS pronunciation:

> We need to remember, however, that communicative competence does not imply the need to talk with a native-like accent. The majority of learners will never sound like native speakers and there is no reason why they should. Many learners rarely speak to native speakers but need to use English to speak to other non-native speakers, using English as a commong language. A more realistic, and perhaps preferable, goal for learners is to become easily intelligible and to speak with a resonably natural rhythm so that no undue burden is placed on the person they are speaking to.

He then goes on by discussing the fact that some teachers worry about pronunciation teaching because they are not confident enough about their own pronunciation. The practical suggestion that he provides is that 'teachers should concern themselves with providing a natural model of English rather than worrying about which model that is'.

In the other unit subsumed under Production, i.e. [W_PR_2][71], Watkins is concerned with the topic of connected speech, a typical feature of NS pronunciation. Similarly to [S_PR_2], [S_PR_3] and [S_PR_4], he advises teachers that they do not need to 'worry too much about learners producing the effects of connected speech'.

4.2.2 Reception

The table below shows that the a total of twelve units were coded for Reception:

	U	**S**	**M**	**W**	**Total**
RE	6	2	0	4	12

Table 4: Coding frequencies - Reception

[71] [W_PR_2] is related to [W_RE_3], which is concerned with the samet opic from the point of view of language reception.

Out of these, six units were identified in Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching*, two units were identified in Scrivenerʾs *Learning Teaching*, and four units were idenfitied in Watkinsʾs *Learning to Teach English*. No textual material was assigned to this category as far as McDonough et al.ʾs *Materials and Methods in ELT* is concerned.

Similarily to some of the units discussed in the previous section, i.e. [U_PR_5], Ur is concerned in [U_RE_1] with the topic of intelligibility. She references ELF literature, and states in relation to pronunciation features such as ʿschwaʾ that ʿfully competent English speakers with a different mother tongue tend to pronounce words fairly closely to the way they are written and formally pronounced, which of course makes them more clearly comprehensibleʾ. As such, failure to use ʿschwaʾ and other features usually associated with NS accents does not impede intelligibilty. However, in order to be able to understand speakers, be they NSs or NNSs, who do use such pronunciation features, learners ʿneed to have opportunities to encounter and understand themʾ. Similarly to [U_PR_9], the information presented in this units reflects the LFC (see 2.3.3).

The importance of learnersʾ being exposed to features of NS speech, which they may not necessarily have to be taught to produce themselves, is also stressed in [U_RE_5] and [U_RE_6], where the author is concerned with the importance of exposing students to different accents and varieties in order to improve their ability to understand different types of rhythm, and intonation patterns, respectively. These two units are related to [U_PR_7] and [U_PR_8], where the author approaches the same topics from the point of view of language production.

Aside from the importance of exposing learners to features of NS speech, which they may not necessarily have to be taught to produce themselves, the units falling under this category also deal with the importance of exposing learners to a number of English accents and varieties in general, both native and non-native. This is evident in [U_RE_2], [U_RE_3] and [U_RE_4], where the author stresses the importance of exposing students to a variety of English accents and varieties.

The two units coded for Reception in Scrivenerʾs *Learning Teaching* also deal with understanding spoken language. The first unit, i.e. [S_RE_1], is concerned with connected speech. Being related to [S_PR_2], this unit also includes the questions mentioned in relation to the former unit. The following question is of importance as far as language reception is concerned: ʿIs it appropriate for your students to practise recognising features such as weak

forms and elision?' As was stated in relation to [S_PR_2], the author does not provide a definite answer, and leaves the question open for consideration, thus allowing readers to consider what may be most appropriate in their situation.

In [S_RE_2], the author stresses the importance of students' being able to understand connected speech. As such, it is importat that students be exposed to such language. This unit is related to [S_PR_3], where the same topic is discussed from the point of view of language production.

The four units coded for Reception in Watkins' *Learning to Teach English* are also concerned with understanding spoken language. The author suggests in [W_RE_1][72] that in light of the current role of English in the world, i.e. a global lingua franca, learners should be 'exposed to a range of accents and varieties of English, with no one variety being given particular status.' The same sentiment is expressed in [W_RE_4], where the author advises teachers to expose learners to a variety of Englishes, both native and non-native, as part of the listening curriculum.

The following unit, i.e. [W_RE_2], is also concerned with the issue of accent, but from a slightly different perspective. The author advises NNS teachers that they do not need to hide their natural accent, as 'no particular accent is intrinsically 'better' than any other'. More importantly, Watkins also states that it may actually be useful for learners to adjust to their teacher's non-native accent, because they are more likely to communicate with other NNSs than NSs.

The last unit subsumed under Reception, i.e. [W_RE_3], is related to [W_PR_2]. In this case, the topic of connected speech is approached from the point of view of language reception. The author encourages teachers to primarily focus on the decoding of connected speeech.

[72] Since the author mentions both *accents* and *varieties* of English in this unit, it may be assumed that he refers to both spoken language and written language.

4.3.2 General

The table below shows that a total of four units were coded for General:

	U	S	M	W	Total
GN	1	2	1	0	4

Table 5: Coding frequencies - General

Out of these, one unit was identified in Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching*, and McDonoughʾs *Materials and Methods in ELT*, respectively. Scrivenerʾs *Learning Teaching* contained a total of two units coded for General. No textual material was assigned to General in the case of Watkinsʾ *Learning to Teach English*.

In [U_GN_1], Ur is concerned with the topic of teaching adults. As one of the possible areas of interest to be included in lessons, she mentions comparisons between American and British English as a lesson activity. Although exposing learners to different varieties is certainly important, from the ELF perspective, this could potentially be extended to include other English varieties, both native and non-native.

In [S_GN_1], Scrivener discusses the issue of what variety of English to teach. He does not provide a definite answer, but instead encourages teachers to think about what may be most appropriate in their situation, a trend evident in some of the previous units, e.g. [S_RE_1]. The author also encourages teachers to raise studentsʾ awareness of the plurilithic nature of English. In this particular case, awareness-raising is explicitly related to the teaching of listening:

> One approach I have seen a number of teachers adopting is that of being completely open acknowledging the range of Englishes available and raising it for discussion and choice; for example, after playing a recording saying ‘Well, the person on the recording said … but, myself, I say … and here in this town, I’ve noticed that people say …’.

Scrivener prompts teachers not only to acknowledge the existence of the different varieties of English, but also to discuss with their students how the different varieties are reflected in the language that they encounter.

This kind of awareness-raising is clearly related to both language reception and production. First, it contributes to the learnersʾ ability to understand the different varieties of English. Second, it provides opportunities for them to make informed choices about what kind of variety they are going to use themselves.

The other unit coded for General in Scrivener's *Learning Teaching*, i.e. [S_GN_2], is concerned with pronunciation. Here, the author provides three suggestions on how to approach the issue of variety in terms of pronunciation teaching:

> It is often appropriate and honest to (a) teach the pronunciation you speak yourself; (b) draw attention to local variations you are aware of; (c) highlight differences in accent that appear in course material.

Similarly to the previous unit, i.e. [S_GN_1], the suggestions presented here are also beneficial for developing both learner's abilities to produce, and understand spoken language.

In the one instance of a unit coded for Reception as far as McDonough et al.'s *Materials and Methods* in concerned, the authors discuss the issue of awareness-raising in relation to vocabulary teaching. In this particular case, the authors acknowledge the current role of English as a 'global or international language', as a consequence of which 'some teachers may wish to concentrate on aspects of vocabulary that differ in, say, British and American English'. Simlarly to [U_GN_2], it would be more suitable if the range of varieties were extended beyond the traditional focus on British and American English.

4.2.4 Culture (practice)

The table below shows that a total of five units were coded for Culture (practice):

	U	**S**	**M**	**W**	**Total**
CP	5	0	1	0	6

Table 6: Coding frequencies – Culture (practice)

The units coded for Culture (practice) were present in Ur's *A Course in English Language Teaching* (five units), and McDonough et al.'s *Material and Methods in ELT* (one unit).

In [U_CP_1], Ur is concerned with the teaching of English literature and the culture of the English-speaking peoples. In line with the criteria for inclusion of textual material in this category, the author stresses that 'in most teaching contexts, it is inappropriate to talk about a target culture, meaning a native-speaker one'. Rather than insisting on learners becoming acquainted with the culture of a single community, i.e. the culture of the English-speaking peoples, teachers should encourage learners 'to become aware of a diverse, international, cosmopolitan set of cultural norms, literature, art forms and so on […]'. Thus, the content of teaching should not be related to one dominant culture, but it should involve a variety of

cultural influences from around the world. In this way, i.e. by being exposed to different cultures, learners can develop an intercultural awareness (see 2.4.4).

The topic of intercultural awareness is present, although indirectly, in [U_CP_2]. It is part of a wider discussion of the cultural appropriateness of materials. The author presents the following issues experienced by a teacher:

> Suad (teaching in a girlsʾ school in Egypt): The reading passage is culturally inappropriate for my adolescent female students. In our culture it is not acceptable for young people to have girlfriends or boyfriends or ʿgo outʾ. So I have a problem with the following reading passage, though the rest of the book is excellent.

This is followed by list of recommendations on how to solve the issue of cultural inappropriateness. The author proposes that the teacher 1) skip the reading passage; 2) adapt it; 3) acknowledge that it relates to a foreign culture; 4) use it as a tool for comparing the foreign culture and the home culture. The last point, i.e. 4), is of importance. Here, the author suggests that teachers use a potentially inappropriate reading passage as a means of comparing the home culture and the foreign culture. This, as stated in 2.4.4, is one of the ways of fostering learnersʾ intercultural awareness.

In [U_CP_3], the author is concerned with the topic of content in relation to coursebook selection. She states that if students are planning to integrate into a native English-speaking community, ʿtopics that are based on that community will be very importantʾ. If, on the other hand, students are learning English for the purpose of international communication, ʿsuch content will be less prominentʾ, which corresponds to one of the criteria for inclusion of textual material in this category, i.e. the fact that the content should not be related to one dominant culture, especially a NS one.

Similarly to [U_CP_1], cultural awareness is also discussed in [U_CP_4], where the author suggests that teachers include in their lessons ʿtexts and tasks that look at different cultural normsʾ, and that they also draw ʿstudentʾs attention to cultural implications in other texts they might not otherwise noticeʾ.

In [U_CP_5], the issue of culture is related to the teaching of literature. In light of the current role of English as an ʿinternational languageʾ, the author suggests that teachers ʿchoose literature from as wide a range of sources as possible […]ʾ. This includes original

English literature, but also literature translated into English from other languages. In this way, no single culture dominates, and learners are exposed to a variety of cultural influences.

The unit coded for Culture (practice) in McDonough et al.'s *Materials and Methods in ELT*, i.e. [M_CP_1], is concerned with modern technology, and its role in fostering learner's intecultural awareness. Although intercultural awareness is not the main focus of the textual material included in this unit, we may find some practical suggestions related to this topic. The authors provide examples of projects that develop 'intercultural awareness through computer mediated collaborative activity'. Such projects demonstrate 'the potential of technology to create bridges out from our learners' cultural contexts'.

4.2.4 Global role of English

The table below shows that a total of sixteen units were coded for Global role of English:

	U	**S**	**M**	**W**	**Total**
GE	7	3	4	2	16

Table 7: Coding frequencies – Global role of English

Out of these, a total of seven units were present in Ur's *A Course in English Language Teaching*. McDonough et al.'s *Materials and Methods in ELT* contained four such units. The two remaining publications, i.e. Scriveners' *Learning Teaching*, and Watkins's *Learning to Teach English*, included three and two units, respectively.

In [U_GE_1], Ur is concerned with the fact that there are many varieties of English around the world. The textual material included in this unit is part of a discussion of different English styles. Although some practical suggestions are provided, these are concerned with the differences between formal and informal style, written and spoken language etc. As such, no practical suggestion is explicitly linked to the topic of the existence of different varieties of English, which is why the textual material was assigned to Global role of English, i.e. a theoretical category.

Ur speaks in [U_GE_2] of a shift in the use of English: 'from being mainly the native language of nations such as the UK or USA, to being mainly a global means of communication'. Associated with this, according to her, is the fact that English is now spoken by more NNSs than NSs. As such, English is no longer a foreign language for the majority of learners, but an international language, which carries a number of implications for ELT.

The following two units are concerned with the issue of NS and NNS English teachers. Although this topic is discussed in relation to teaching/learning models, which corresponds to the criteria for inclusion of textual material in Production (see 3.1.3.1), the two units were subsumed under Global role of English, because they match the criteria for inclusion in this category in that they deal with the distinction between NS and NNS teachers. At the same time, no practical suggestions are provided in these two units, which also prevents them from being included in the category Production. In the first of these units, i.e. [U_GE_3], Ur argues that NNS teachers are likely to provide ʻa better model of international English for their students. In [U_GE_4], the author states that ʻIt has been taken for granted in the past that the aim of an English course is to make the learners communicate like native speakersʼ. She acknowledges that for most learners, however, this is unattainable. As such, NNS teachers are likely to provide a more appropriate model.

The author discusses in [U_GE_6] the fact that English as an international language is spoken mainly by people who have learnt the language ʻas an additional languageʼ. Then, drawing on relevant research[73], she claims that speakers of English as an international language ʻmake an effort to speak clearly and use a variety of communication strategies to make sure they understand and are understoodʼ. The author, although not explicitly, touches upon the notion of accommodation, which has been found to play an important role in ELF interactions (see 2.3.5). In spite of this, there are no practically suggestions on how to approach the teaching of communicative strategies, and the topic itself is only mentioned as part of a wider discussion of teaching listening.

In [U_GE_7], the author states that ʻin some cases native-speaker pronunciation may actually be less readily comprehensible for the majority of English speakers than that of non-nativesʼ. She attributes this to the fact that some features of NS speech, such as weak forms, ʻmay cause difficulty in comprehensionʼ. Being a theoretical unit, it does not provide any practical suggestions on how to help students understand such language. However, some of the units in the previous sections, e.g. [U_RE_1], are concerned precisely with this issue, and suggest that learners should be exposed to such language to ensure that they understand it.

In [S_GE_1], Scrivener is concerned with the current proliferation of Englishes around the world. Not only does he mention the use of English in the Outer Circle, but he also speaks

[73] The research in question is described in: Seidlhofer, B. (2004) Research perspectives on teaching English as a lingua franca. Annual review of Applied Linguistics 24.1, 209-39.

about the use of English as a lingua franca. His discussion of the lingua franca role of English continues in [S_GE_2], where the author states that the vast majority of English speakers worldwide use the language as a lingua franca, i.e. in interactions between NNSs. He claims that when a NS joins such an interaction, problems related to intelligibility may arise, simply as a result of the NSʾs inability to accommodate to the other speakers.

Interestingly, he states that ʿsome writers and researchers have proposed that we should no longer be teaching English based on native speaker models of correct grammar, pronunciation and cultural conventionsʾ. Although he is using the term English as a lingua franca, he makes no explicit references to ELF as a research paradigm. While the words *writers* and *researchers* are used, no connection is made to ELF as a discipline. Whether by *writers* and *researchers* he is referring to ELF researchers is thus open to speculation. The most interesting point to made about this unit concerns its very ending. Scrivener suggests that the problem of what variety to teach may be solved by establishing the lingua franca core, i.e. an international version of English.

There are two issues with this suggestion. First, the term lingua franca core has been used in an entirely different sense in ELF research (see 2.3.3). Second, Scrivener states that ʿthis would not be invented, but discovered by researching and analysing how non-native users speak when they come togetherʾ. In saying this, he seems to be ignoring the fact that such research has already been taking place. This, i.e. ʿhow non-native users speak when they come togetherʾ, is precisely what ELF empirical research has been concerned with. Although corpus findings provided by ELF research are by no means intended to be used as prescriptive, they nevertheless reveal some common patterns in ELF interactions (see 2.3). While I am not proposing that this ʿnewʾ[74] lingua franca core should necessarily be established and used in the context of ELT, I wish to draw attention to the fact that such findings do exist, and it is surprising that they are being ignored by the author of this publication.

In [S_GE_3], the author discusses the global role of English in terms of the impact that it has on learners and their reasons for studying the language. He acknowledges the fact that English teaching has been very much centred on NS countries, namely UK and US, in terms of both language forms and culture. He also states that learners may be expected to study

[74] By ʿnewʾ, I am referring to Scrivenerʾs use of the term, which does not correspond to the way the term Lingua franca core (LFC) has been used in ELF research.

English to be able to communicate with NSs in the target language environment. He then goes on to argue that in light of the current role of English as a lingua franca, this has changed, and many learners are studying English to communicate with other NNSs.

One of the topics identified in relation to Global role of English deals with current trends in material design. This topic, which is present in only one of the analysed publications, namely McDonough et al.'s *Materials and Methods in ELT,* a is present in a total of three units, namely [M_GE_1], [M_GE_3] and [M_GE_4]. In [M_GE_1], the authors are interested in the question of 'to what extent current materials show evolution while retaining the best legacies[75]'. Since a through investigation of this question is not in the interest of this research, I will merely focus on the 'evolution' part of the question, i.e. how current materials reflect the global role of English. The authors provide some examples of the claims made by publishers regarding the teaching and learning value of their materials. Some of the claims are reprinted below:

> 'It enables you to learn English *as it is used in our globalized world*, to *learn through English* using information-rich topics, and to learn about *English as an international language*'. (Clandfield and Jeffries, 2010)
>
> '…prepares learners to *use English independently for global communication*'.
>
> '*Real life* every step of the way….practical *CEF goals at the core of the course….achieving purposeful real life objectives*….language that's natural and dependable – *guaranteed by the….Corpus….Authentic audio throughout* builds learners' ability to *understand the natural English of international speakers*'.
>
> 'Building global relationships….develop learners' *intercultural competence as a "fifth skill"*, leading to a *more sensitive and more effective communication*….'. (Rea et al., 2011)

The authors go on by commenting on these claims. They observe that there are 'explicit statements about English as an international language' present in the claims. Although the question of *how* and *to what extent* these books really do prepare 'learners to use English independently for global communication' is beyond the focus of this research, the fact that these claims had been made, and that the authors of M decided to include them in their publication, neverthless shows that there are changes are taking place in terms of the conceptualization of English as a global language and the impact it has on ELT. Similar claims can also be found in [M_GE_3] and [M_GE_4], where the authors are concerned with the external evaluation of teaching materials.

[75] By 'legacies', they are referring to the era of communicative language teaching (CLT).

In [M_GE_2], the authors are concerned with the current sociolinguistic reality of English, particularly the use of the language as a means of global communication. They discuss ELF as a tool of ʻcommunication at global level, be it face to face or through digital meansʼ. They address a number of relevant issues, e.g. the changing notions of correctness, and the use of accommodation and code-switching in ELF interactions, which speakers may use for various reasons, e.g. ʻto promote solidarity and/or project their own cultural identityʼ. However, as may seem obvious from the fact that this unit is subsumed under Global role of English, i.e. a theoretical category, no practical suggestions are provided on how to approach pragmatic strategies in the classroom.

The first unit coded for Global role of English in Watkinsʼs *Learning to Teach English*, i.e. [W_GE_1], deals with the distinction between NS and NNS English teachers. The discussion in this unit is a response to the assumption that ʻThe best teachers of a language are native speakers of that languageʼ. Watkins lists a couple of generalisations, such as the belief that NS teachers are more likely to use the language naturally, while NNSs teachers are more likely to be ʻable to describe grammar patternsʼ. He concludes, however, that ʻteachers need many skills and qualities and being a good teacher is about working towards having as many of those qualities as possible, regardless of backgroundʼ.

In [W_GE_2], the author is concerned with the reasons that prompt students to learn English, such as their wish to communicate in English while travelling to English-speaking countries, study at an English-medium university, or because they need English for their professional development. However, he also stresseses that the majority of learners study English to communicate with other NNSs, using English as the language ʻthey can both [the two speakers with different L1s] operate inʼ.

4.2.5 Culture (theory)

The table below shows that a total of two units were coded for Culture (theory):

	U	**S**	**M**	**W**	**Total**
CT	1	0	0	0	1

As such, it was the least represented category. The only unit coded for Culture (theory) were present in Urʼs *A Course in English Language Teaching*.

This unit, i.e. [U_CT_1], is concerned with a number of relevant themes. It is structured as an overview of the potential sources of cultural content, and their reflection in modern materials. The author distinguishes home culture, i.e. culture of the native country, the culture of the (native) English-speaking peoples, the cultures of other speech communities, and global cultural norms. The culture of the (native) English-speaking peoples is considered less important than it was in the past (in line with the tenets of research into ELF and related phenomena). The cultures of other speech communities are, on the other hand, seen as more important in modern materials because the knowledge of such cultures contributes to the development of intercultural awareness. Global cultural norms, which have an impact on international social interaction, are also considered important, and as such, they are present in most modern material.

4.3 ELF research

Out of the four analysed publications, only one publication, namely McDonough et al.'s *Materials and Methods in ELT*, included an explicit acknowledgment of ELF as a research paradigm. Interestingly enough, in one of the units subsumed under Production, ELF was acknowledged as a research paradigm in a unit predominantly dealing with pronunciation (see [M_PR_1]). ELF was also acknowledged as a research paradigm in one of the units belonging to Global role of English, more specifically [M_GE_2].

As regards the remaining three publications, no reference is made to ELF as a research paradigm at all. Although Ur draws on ELF research (see below), she does not explicitly state that there is such a phenomenon as ELF in the sense of a research paradigm[76]. Scrivener, on the other hand, mentions that some 'writers and researchers' (see [S_GE_2]) propose that English teaching should no longer be based on NS norms, which implies that there is a field of research dealing with such a topic, no explicit mention of ELF as a research paradigm is made, though. On the contrary, as stated in [S_GE_2], he seems to be ignoring ELF research.

However, all analysed publications make references to the use of English as a lingua franca. The terms that the authors use vary, for instance *English as an international language* (see [U_PR_8)], *English as an international language of communication* (see [M_GE_6]), *English as a lingua franca* (not in the sense of a research paradigm, see [S_PR_1]), *English as*

[76] See 2.3 for the distinction between ELF as a phenomenon and ELF as a research paradigm

a common language (see [W_PR_1)], *English as a contact language* ([M_PR_1]) and *English as a global language* (see [M_GN_1]).

Two of the analysed publications, namely Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching* and McDonough et al.ʾs *Materials and Methods in ELT*, reference ELF literature[77]. Some of the publications that they draw on include Jenkins 2002 (see e.g. [U_PR_9], Jenkins et al. 2011 (see [M_PR_1]), or Kirkpatrick 2010 (see [M_PR_1]). As can be seen in the previous sections (see 4.2.1 and 4.2.2), all ELF literature that Ur references in the units coded for Production and Reception has to do with phonology, particularly the LFC (see 2.3.3). Although McDonough et al. also cite literature dealing with a variety of ELF-related topics (e.g. Jenkins et al. 2011) in [M_PR_1], the publication in question is mentioned as part of their discussion of pronunciation teaching, where they again draw on the LFC. As such, phonology is not only the most frequently represented language system, but the majority of ELF literature that the authors draw on also either exclusively deals with phonology, or is used in the authorsʾ discussion of this area.

4.4 Summary

This subchapter will provide a brief summary of the main topics identified in the coded units. These topics will then be discussed in the following chapter (see Chapter 5).

The first category to be discussed was Production. As regards Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching*, a total of five units, i.e. [U_PR_5], [U_PR_6], [U_PR_7], [U_PR_8] and [U_PR_9], dealt with pronunciation. Pronunciation was also mentioned in some of the remaining units, i.e. [U_PR_1] and [U_PR_2], but other areas were discussed as well. These included vocabulary (see [U_PR_1], [U_PR_2] and [U_PR_3]), grammar (see [U_PR_1], [U_PR_2] and [U_PR_4]), and spelling and lexis (see [U_PR_1] and [U_PR_2]).

As regards the remaining three publications, i.e. Scrivenerʾs *Learning Teaching*, McDonough at al.ʾs *Materials and Methods in ELT*, and Watkinsʾs *Learning to Teach English*, pronunciation was found to be the dominant topic, too. To be precise, all units coded for Production in these publications, i.e. [S_PR_1], [S_PR_2], [S_PR_3], [S_PR_4], [M_PR_1], [W_PR_1] and [W_PR_2], dealt with pronunciation.

Three of the analyzed publications, namely Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching*, Scrivenerʾs *Learning Teaching*, and Watkinsʾs *Learning to Teach English*

[77] Such references are present in [U_PR_6], [U_PR_9], [U_GE_6], [M_PR_1], [M_GE_2], and [M_GE_6].

contained textual material that was coded for Reception. All of the units coded for this category, i.e. [U_RE_1], [U_RE_2], [U_RE_3], [U_RE_4], [U_RE_5], [U_RE_6], [S_RE_1], [S_RE_2], [W_RE_1], [W_RE_2], [W_RE_3] and [W_RE_4], were somehow related to the topic of understanding spoken language. In the case of [W_RE_1], although not explicitly stated, there is the possibility that the author is referring to both spoken and written language.

General included various topics. The unit coded for General in Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching*, i.e. [U_GN_1] dealt with the teaching of differences between American and British English. Similarly, the unit coded in McDonough et al.ʾs *Materials and Methods in ELT* was concerned with the differences in vocabulary between American and British English. The two units present in Scrivenerʾs *Learning Teaching*, i.e. [S_GN_1] and [S_GN_2], dealt with raising studentsʾ awareness about the different varieties of English in relation to listening and pronunciation teaching, respectively.

The six units coded for Culture (practice) were present in Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching* (five units), and McDonough et al.ʾs *Materials and Methods in ELT* (one unit). A total of three units included in this category, i.e. [U_CP_1], [U_CP_2], [U_CP_3], and [M_PR_1], dealt with the topic of fostering learnersʾ intercultural awareness. The two remaining units, i.e. [U_CP_3] and [U_CP_5], were concerned with the content of teaching, which should be related not only to the cultures of NS communities, but also to different cultures from around the world.

As regards Global role of English, the units subsumed under this category dealt with a variety of topics. The topics present in Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching* included the existence of different English varieties around the world (see [U_GE_1]), the fact that English is now spoken by more NNSs than NSs (see [U_GE_2]), NNS teachers in relation to learning/teaching models (see [U_GE_3] and [U_GE_4]), pragmatic strategies (see [U_GE_6]), and the fact that NSs in international interactions may be more difficult to understand than NNSs (see [U_GE_7)].

The three units included in Scrivenerʾs *Learning Teaching* dealt with the current proliferation of English accents and varieties. In [S_GE_1], the author was concerned with the use of English in different context, such as the Inner Cirle, Outer Circle, and Expanding Circle, where English is used as a lingua franca. In [S_GE_2], the author dealt with the role of English as a lingua franca, and its impact on English language teaching. The following unit, i.e. [S_GE_3], was concerned with the fact that in light of the use of English as lingua franca,

many students are nowadays learning the language to communicate with other NNSs, as opposed to the past, when learners primarily studied English to communicate with NSs.

The topics dealt with in McDonough et al.'s *Materials and Methods in ELT* are slightly different. In [M_GE_1], [M_GE_3] and [M_GE_4], the authors were concerned with the impact of the global role of English on current materials. In [M_GE_2], the authors dealt with the role of English as a lingua franca, and the use of pragmatic strategies in such interactions.

In Watkins's *Learning to Teach English*, the identified units dealt with the distinction between NS and NNS English teachers (see [W_GE_1]), and the fact that the majority of students are learning English nowadays to communicate with other NNSs (see [W_GE_2]).

The one unit assigned to Culture (theory) dealt with potential sources of cultural content (see [U_CT_1]).

The above summary thus shows that the majority of the units coded for the categories subsumed under Language, i.e. Production, Reception and General, are concerned with the topics of pronunciation, and understanding spoken English. Other topics related to the teaching of language are represented much less frequently. These include grammar (Production), lexis and spelling (Production), and vocabulary (Production and General). All of these topic will be discussed in the next chapter. Apart from these, attention will also be paid to some of the other topics, namely intercultural awareness (Culture (practice), Culture (theory)), and pragmatic strategies (Global role of English). Other areas of interest, such as the acknowledgement of ELF as a research paradigm discussed above (see 4.3), will be addressed, too.

5 Discussion

The results presented in the previous chapter show that research into GEs and ELF is in some way reflected in all analysed publications. Interestingly, the results also show that there is a larger number of units subsumed under Practice than Theory. What this suggests is that the pedagogical implications of research into GEs and ELF can be incorporated into actual teaching practices, in spite of the fact that it has been argued that ʻit [ELF] is still part of an academic debate rather than something teachers find of relevance for their everyday professional practicesʾ(Vettorel 2015: 4). The results of the analysis clearly show that this may not be the case. However, the question arises of to what degree the practical suggestions identified in the analysed publications are truly ʻpracticalʾ[78]. Some of the units subsumed under Practice were shown to provide suggestions that may be readily applied in the classroom, while others were practical in the sense of moving teachers in a certain direction without providing specific information.

The category Global role of English was shown to be one of the two most numerous categories, and at the same time one of the two categories to be represented in all four publications. Concerned with various topics such as the current proliferation of English accent and varieties, or the changing role of English and its impact on different areas, the authors of the publications seem to be aware of the current sociolinguistic reality of English. However, their understanding of the current role of English is not always reflected elsewhere in the particular publication. As Dewey (2014: 21) puts it, ʻThere is thus relatively widespread awareness of the lingua franca status of English but very limited take up of this in any practical senseʾ. Although the results of the analysis show that the four analysed publications do reflect the lingua franca status of English in various ways, providing information about the lingua franca status of English itself being one of them, it is undeniable that there are certain areas, be they related to language or culture (see below), that lag behind the awareness of the global role of English as far as their reflection in the analysed publications is concerned.

Moreover, it is interesting that while all the authors are aware of the global role of English, which is evident in the number of units assigned to the category Global role of English, but also in some of the other categories and topics (see below), they seem to be reluctant to acknowledge the existence of ELF as a research paradigm. Only one of the analyzed publications, namely McDonough et al.ʾs *Materials and Methods in ELT*, explicitly

[78] See Chapter 6 for suggestions for further research

acknowledges the existence of ELF as a research paradigm. The fact that ELF is not acknowledged as a field of research is especially striking in case of Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching*, and Scrivenerʾs *Learning to Teach English*. Although Ur makes references to ELF literature, not once does she acknowledge the existence of ELF. Scrivener does not refer to ELF literature, but discusses the use of English as a lingua franca (in the sense of a linguistic phenomenon, not a research paradigm), and even suggests the potential of research to show how language is used in interactions between NNSs. However, he does not mention that there already exists such research. It is difficult to understand why the authors of the analyzed publications would deliberately refrain from acknowledging the existence of ELF, when it could actually support the arguments that they are making in the publications. Acknowledging ELF as a research paradigm (the way it is done in McDonough et al.ʾs *Materials and Methods in ELT*, for instance), would not only be able to support the authorsʾ arguments, but it would also be beneficial for the readers, who would be introduced to a topic they may not have encountered elsewhere.

As regards the other categories and the topics included in them, the first of the areas to be discussed is pronunciation, and the related topic of understanding spoken language. Represented in all the three categories subsumed under Language, i.e. Production, Reception and General, pronunciation was the most frequent topic. Pronunciation was in fact at the start of ELF research (see Jenkins et al. 2011: 282), and Jenkinsʾs *The Phonology of English as an International Language* (2000), in which she introduced the LFC (see 2.3.3), has come to be considered crucial in the development of ELF research. Looking at the results of the analysis, it is clear that the LFC is an influential concept: the majority of instances when the authors of the analysed publications draw on ELF literature have to do with the LFC. The LFC is indeed considered influential in that it ʿhelped highlight the centrality of intelligibility in rendering pronunciation teaching a means to the end of effective communication between non-native speakersʾ (Sifakis 2014b: 132). The ʿcentrality of intelligibilityʾ seems to be corroborated by the results of the analysis, which show that in many cases, intelligibility is prioritized over an approximation of native-like pronunciation.

Although the interest of ELF researchers has spread to other areas over the years, recent developments show that phonology is still one of the most influential areas of ELF research as far as the link between research and its practical applications is concerned. This is evident when we consider some recent publications aimed at both English teachers and learners, respectively. As regards the publications aimed at English teachers, Walker (2010)

published a handbook on teaching ELF-oriented pronunciation, which remains to be the only ELF-informed publication for English teachers (see Jenkins 2012: 493).

Concerning classroom materials, recent studies[79] (see Dewey 2014; Quinn Novotná 2014) on the reflection of ELF in current textbooks also show that research into phonology from an ELF-informed perspective is finding its way into ELT materials. This is apparent in relation to both language production and reception. As far as language production is concerned, Quinn Novotná (2014: 14) reports that the authors of *English Unlimited*, a recently published textbook, made use of the LFC when writing the textbook. Concerning language reception, Dewey (2014: 20) and Quinn Novotná (2014: 15) state that the textbooks analysed in their respective studies involve non-native accents as part of the listening curriculum.

Moreover, Dewey (2014: 21) also claims that ʻin (many) contemporary materials there is thus some value assigned to language variety (although almost exclusively in relation to accent).ʾ This again illustrates the fact that phonology is one of the most salient language systems when it comes to translating GEs and ELF research into practice. The results of this analysis confirm this, and the fact becomes even more obvious when contrasted with the other language systems, i.e. grammar and vocabulary, which were very scarcely represented in our analysis.

The representation of grammar is slightly problematic in that there is a disparity between what one of the authors, particularly Ur, suggests, and what practical solutions she offers for teachers wishing to follow her suggestions. Although she suggests that teachers encourage learners to use forms that are internationally acceptable, but not necessarily associated with native English varieties, she does not provide any examples of what these forms actually are. The question of international acceptability is complicated, because from the point of view of language standards in the context of ELT, *acceptable* usually equates *native*. Since Ur rejects variant form as being non-standard, but does not provide any specific examples of forms that are both standard (= internationally acceptable) and non-native, it is difficult to put this suggestion into practice. One of the potential implications of this might be the need for further research, which could potentially establish what *is* and what *is not* internationally acceptable. Though only theoretically, this area[80] is also tackled by Scrivener,

[79] The studies are discussed in more detail in 2.4.6

[80] In [S_GE_2], Scrivener does explicitly mention grammar teaching. However, the topic of establishing an international version of English present in [S_GE_2] is very much connected to the present discussion. Hence the reference to Scrivener.

who suggests that an international version of English may potentially be developed. However, such an understaking may border on prescriptivism (in case the findings would then be used as binding), which is against the tenets of ELF-informed pedagogy (see 2.4.1).

The practical tips on how to teach vocabulary are more specific. Although the authors of the publications in which these tips occur, namely Ur and McDonough et al., provide concrete suggestion which are to a degree compatible with an ELF-informed perspective, such as teaching the forms that are most likely to be understood worldwide, or raising learners' awareness by drawing their attention to the differences between American and British English, the 'value assigned to language variety' (see above), though present, is predominantly manifested through an orientation to the two traditional varieties, i.e. American and British English.

As regards the cultural topics, the results of the analysis show that not much consideration was given to the topic of raising learners' intercultural awareness and intercultural communicative competence. Although this area is crucial to international communication (see 2.4.4), the fact that it was only represented in two of the analysed publications shows that this area is clearly lacking in bridging the gap between theory and practice as far as teacher training manuals are concerned.

Previous research concerned with materials in ELT, more specifically textbooks, neverthless shows that intercultural awareness is finding its way into practically-oriented literature. Lopriore and Vettorel (2013: 497), for instance, came to the conclusion that in the textbooks used in the Italian context, intercultural awareness is the main area where GEs and ELF research is reflected in practice:

> The area where more comforting findings emerge is that of intercultural awareness. Several viewpoints appear to be increasingly acknowledged, especially in supplementary materials downloadable from websites. These materials not only provide reflection activities, but also support for learners' use of the language in their local contexts.

In a similar vein, Quinn Novotná (2014: 15) states in her study of recently published textbooks that the analysed publications 'promote intercultural sensitivity and raise awareness about cultural differences and communication in cross-cultural settings'.

Another area which was not adequately represented, in spite of its far-reaching implications for international communication (see 2.3.5), were pragmatic strategies. This finding is in line with previous research into practically-oriented literature. Dewey (2014: 19),

for instance, states that ʻThe focus on language in contemporary materials appears to make no provision […] for any of the pragmatic strategies found to be important in lingua franca interaction, such as the use of accommodation skillsʼ. Similarly, Lopriore and Vettorel (2015) report in relation to specific materials that ʻcommunication strategies are often included only with reference to self-study and exam skills, rather than involving students in tasks that take into account the relevance of these strategies in the diversity of (ELF) settings where Engliush is currently used.ʼ

In this chapter, I related the results of the analysis to the findings of previous research into the reflection of GEs and ELF in ELT materials. In the following chapter, i.e. Conclusion (see Chapter 6), I will summarize the present research and draw conclusions as to the reflection of GEs and ELF research in the analyzed publications.

6 Conclusion

Research into GEs and ELF has multiple implications for ELT, and the question thus arises of how these implications are manifested in practice. Although a number of studies have been published on how the pedagogical implications of research into GEs and ELF are reflected in textbooks (see Lopriore and Vettorel 2013; Quinn Novotná 2014), not much attention has been paid to their reflection in literature aimed at English teachers. Thus, the aim of the present thesis was to analyze a selection of teacher training manuals (Scrivener 2011; Ur 2012; McDonough et al. 2013; Watkins 2014) in terms of how they reflect research into GEs and ELF. The aim of the analysis was not to compare the extent to which the individual publications reflect research into GEs and ELF, but instead to explore if and how these publications as a whole reflect such research.

Qualitative content analysis (Schreier 2012) was selected as the research method used in this study. The coding frame that was devised for the purpose of this analysis (see 3.1.3.) consisted of four hierarchical levels, each of them focusing on a different aspect of the analyzed textual material. The focus was primarily on the distinction between practically- and theoretically-oriented textual material, and the subcategories subsumed under these two dimensions. The decision to create the distinction betwen practically- and theoretically-oriented textual material was prompted by the intention to ascertain whether the reflection of research into GEs and ELF was oriented rather theoretically or practically.

There were a total of fifty-five units coded in the analysis[81]. Out of these, a total of thirty-eight unit were subsumed under Practice, and the remaining seventeen units were subsumed under Theory. Thus, there was a higher number of practically-oriented units. The same is true about the numbers concerning the individual publications. All but McDonough et al.'s *Materials and Methods in ELT* included a higher number of practically-oriented units when compared to the units dealing with theory. The fact that there were more practically-oriented units may imply that the pedagogical implications of research into GEs and ELF are applicable in practice, and not just a matter of academic debate.

Global role of English (sixteen units) was, along with Production, one of the two most frequently coded categories. Although there is plentiful information about the global role of English in the selected publications, this is not always reflected in the authors' approaches to

[81] See Appendix 3 for a complete list of the coded units.

other areas, such as culture (see below). Moreover, only one of the analyzed publications, i.e. McDonough et al.ʾs *Materials and Methods in ELT*, explicitly acknowledges the existence of ELF as a research paradigm. It is difficult to understand why the authors of the publications would deliberately refrain from discussing ELF as a field of research, when they (or at least some of them) obviously know about its existence, which is evidenced by the fact that they make references to ELF research (this is the case of Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching*).

As regards the individual categories and the topics that are present in them, pronunciation and understanding spoken language were found to be the most frequent topics. They were discussed in a number of units in Production, Reception and General, i.e. all the categories subsumed under Language. Two of the publications, namely Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching* and McDonough et al.ʾs *Materials and Methods in ELT*, drew on ELF literature, and made references to the LFC in their discussion of pronunciation teaching. This confirms the position of pronunciation as one of the most influential areas of ELF research as far as the link between theory and practice is concerned.

Other language systems were scarcely discussed. Grammar, for instance, was dealt with in only one of the publications, specifically Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching*. Moreover, the suggestions provided by the author as to what ʿkindʾ of grammar to teach were not very specific. While the author rejects the use of variant forms, she claims that teachers should encourage students to use standard grammar. However, she also states that standard does not equal native, but ʿinternationally acceptableʾ. It thus not clear what kind of grammar she is referring to, which raises questions as to whether future research could potentially establish what these ʿinternationally acceptableʾ forms of grammar actually are. The same can be said about vocabulary teaching, which was not frequently represented. The units dealing with vocabulary teaching, though addressing the issue of variety, are concerned with the two traditional varieties, i.e. American and British English, and little regard is given to other English varieties.

As far as other areas of interest are concerned, pragmatic strategies, i.e. an important aspect of ELF interactions, was represented in only two of the analyzed publications. The topic is only mentioned in passing, and no practical suggestions are provided on how to approach the teaching of these strategies. This in inline with the findings of previous studies (see Dewey 2014; Lopriore and Vettorel 2015), which report that pragmatic strategies,

although crucial in international communication, are not sufficiently addressed by material writers.

Intercultual awareness, on the other hand, is included in both Culture (practice) and Culture (theory). However, it is present in only two of the analyzed publications, namely Urʾs *A Course in English Language Teaching* and McDonough et al.ʾs *Materials and Methods in ELT*. As such, the other analyzed publications do not include this topic in spite of its importance for international communication. Studies concerned with the reflection of ELF in textbooks (see Lopriore and Vettorel 2013; Quinn Novotná 2014) neverthless show that intercultural awareness is finding its way into current materials.

The research thus shows that the analyzed publications reflect research into GEs and ELF. Interestingly, the reflection is both practical and theoretical, which implies that arguments against the applicability of ELF in the classroom may be unfounded. As regards the areas of interest present in the publications, pronunciation is the area most frequently represented area. Other areas such as intercultural awareness and pragmatic strategies are not given much attention. Overall, it is possible to conclude that the analyzed publications show some developments in terms of linking theory and practice, but more engagement with the implications of research into GEs and ELF is needed if the publication are to reflect the current sociolinguistic reality of English. This is especially true in respect to the topics of intercultural awareness and pragmatic strategies.

As regards future research, it may be interesting to conduct a quantitative analysis, which could show to what degree the individual publications reflect research into GEs and ELF. Combined with a qualitative analysis, such research could provide valuable insight not only into the extent to which the individual publications reflect research into GEs and ELF, but also in what ways GEs and ELF are reflected. Possibly, further research could also be concerned with the use of the analyzed teacher training manuals in practice. Since the present research only addresses the issue of *whether* and *how* the analyzed publications reflect GEs and ELF research, not much attention is paid to how the information contained in the analyzed publications may actually be used in a practical sense. Although the results show that there are practical suggestions present in the analyzed publications, the topic of practical applicability is not taken further.

7 Resumé

Diplomová práce se zabývá reflexí výzkumu v oblasti globálních angličtin (GEs) a angličtiny jako lingua franca (ELF) v současných metodických příručkách pro učitele angličtiny. Teoretická část práce (viz Kapitola 2) představuje výzkum v oblasti GEs a ELF s důrazem na pedagogické implikace tohoto výzkumu. Metodologická část práce (viz Kapitola 3) představuje metodu výzkumu a zkoumaný materiál.

Výzkum využívá kvalitativní obsahovou analýzu (viz Schreier 2012). Cílem této metody je klasifikace a následná interpretace kvalitativního materiálu. Pro účely výzkumu byly vybrány čtyři publikace (Scrivener 2011; Ur 2012; McDonough a kol. 2013; Watkins 2014). Tyto publikace byly vybrány, jelikož splnily dvě předem stanovená kritéria: 1) všechny byly vydány v nedávné době, tj. 2011 až 2014); 2) všechny se zabývají jak jazykovými prostředky, tak řečovými dovednostmi. Cílem výzkumu nebylo zjistit, do jaké míry jednotlivé publikace výzkum v oblasti GEs a ELF reflektují, ale spíše zhodnotit, jaká témata se ve zkoumaných publikacích jako celku vyskytují.

Základem výzkumu byl tzv. kódovací rámec (coding frame), který určil, jaký typ textového materiálu bude kódován pro účely analýzy. Finální kódovací rámec se skládá ze čtyř rovin. První rovina, tj. přítomnost textové materiálu odrážejícího výzkum v oblasti GEs a ELF (Presence of textual material reflecting research into GEs and ELF), byla rozdělena do dvou podkategorií na druhé rovině kódovacího rámce. Tyto podkategorie byly pojmenovány praxe (Practice) a teorie (Theory). Důvodem pro výběr těchto dvou kategorií byla snaha vysledovat, zda se výzkum v oblasti GEs a ELF odráží spíše prakticky nebo teoreticky.

Podkategorie praxe byla rozdělena do dvou dalších podkategorií na třetí rovině rámce, tj. jazyk (Language) a kultura (praxe) (Culture (practice)). Podkategorie kultura (praxe) byla tzv. finální podkategorií, tzn. nebyla rozdělena do dalších podkategorií na čtvrté rovině kódovacího rámce. Podkategorie jazyk byla rozdělena do dalších podkategorií na čtvrté rovině kódovacího rámce, tj. produkce (Production), recepce (Reception) a obecné (General). Důvodem pro ustanovení těchto tří kategorií byl záměr zjistit, zda se praktická doporučení pro výuku jazyka zaměřují spíše na produkci nebo recepci. Jelikož bylo zjištěno, že textový materiál obsahuje případy, kdy není explicitně řečeno, zda se doporučení týká produkce nebo recepce, byla vytvořena kategorie obecné.

Podkategorie teorie byla rozdělena do dvou dalších podkategorií na třetí rovině rámce, tj. globální role angličtiny (Global role of English) a kultura (teorie) (Culture (theory)). Tyto podkategorie byly finálními podkategoriemi.

Pro každou podkategorii byla stanovena kritéria, která určovala, jaký typ textového materiálu má být ke každé podkategorii přiřazen. Přiřazený textový materiál utvořil tzv. kódovací jednotku (unit of coding). Kromě kritérií na přiřazování textového materiálu ke kategoriím tak byla také vytvořena pravidla pro segmentaci toho materiálu do výše uvedených jednotek.

Výsledky analýzy (viz Kapitola 4) ukázaly, že ve vybraných publikacích bylo celkem kódováno 55 jednotek[82]. Podkategorie praxe obsahovala 38 jednotek, zatímco podkategorie teorie obsahovala zbývajících 17 jednotek. Dá se tak říci, že výzkum v oblasti GEs a ELF se ve vybraných publikacích reflektuje spíše prakticky než teoreticky.

Nejpočetnějšími podkategoriemi byly produkce (16 jednotek) a globální role angličtiny (16 jednotek). Kromě toho, že tyto podkategorie měly největší počet jednotek, také byly jediné, které se reflektovaly ve všech zkoumaných publikacích. Přestože globální role angličtiny patřila mezi dvě nejpočetnější kategorie, což naznačuje, že autoři publikací jsou seznámeni se současnou sociolingvistickou realitou angličtiny ve světě, tato skutečnost se ne vždy odráží v ostatních kategoriích. Jako příklad můžeme uvést publikaci *Learning Teaching* (Scrivener 2011), která obsahovala tři jednotky spadající pod kategorii globální role angličtiny, ale neobsahovala žádné jednotky spadající pod kategorie kultura (praxe) a kultura (teorie).

Podkategorie globální role angličtiny obsahovala následující témata: současné rozšíření angličtiny a s tím související množství variet; skutečnost, že se většina studentů dnes angličtinu učí jako jazyk, který používají pro komunikaci s ostatními nerodilými mluvčími; rodilý a nerodilý mluvčí jako učitel angličtiny; pragmatické strategie a další prvky mezinárodních interakcí; vliv globální role angličtiny na podobu současných materiálů.

Hlavním tématem jednotek přiřazených k podkategorii produkce byla výslovnost. Toto téma se objevilo ve všech publikacích. Autoři se zabývali především důležitostí srozumitelnosti. V několika jednotkách spadajících pod tuto podkategorii autoři dvou

[82] Všechny kódované jednotky jsou k dohledání v příloze 1 (viz Appendix 1).

publikací, konkrétně Ur (2012) a McDonough a kol. (2013), odkazují na koncept LFC[83] (viz 2.3.3) a literaturu z oblasti GEs a ELF. McDonough a kol. (2013) jsou jedinými autory, kteří explicitně uvádí existenci ELF jako vědecké disciplíny. Další témata, tzn. gramatika, slovní zásoba a pravopis, se projevila pouze v jedné publikaci, konkrétně *A Course in English Language Teaching* (Ur 2012).

Další podkategorií byla recepce (14 jednotek). Jednotky přiřazené k této podkategorii pochází ze tří publikací, konkrétně *A Course in English Language Teaching* (Ur 2012), *Learning Teaching* (2011) a *Learning to Teach English* (Watkins 2014). Hlavní téma jednotek v této podkategorii byla schopnost studentů rozumět mluvenému jazyku. Toto téma, které je spřízněné s hlavním tématem jednotek přiřazených k podkategorii produkce, bylo přítomné ve všech jednotkách. Autoři se zabývali důležitostí vystavování studentů různým varietám angličtiny, aby s těmito varietami přišli do kontaktu, a měli tak možnost jim rozumět.

V podkategorii obecné (4 jednotky) se projevila dvě témata, tj. slovní zásoba a výuka výslovnosti společně se schopností studentů rozumět mluvenému jazyku. Jednotky přiřazené k této podkategorii pochází ze tří publikací, konkrétně *A Course in English Language Teaching* (Ur 2012), *Learning Teaching* (2011) a *Materials and Methods in ELT* (2013).

Podkategorie kultura (praxe) byla zastoupena pouze ve dvou publikacích, konkrétně *A Course in English Language Teaching* (Ur 2012) a *Materials and Methods in ELT* (McDonough a kol. 2013). Hlavním tématem těchto jednotek bylo pěstování mezikulturního povědomí u studentů. Další téma, které se v jednotkách projevilo, se týkalo kulturního obsahu materiálů a výuky obecně.

Poslední podkategorie, tj. kultura (teorie), obsahovala pouze jednu jednotku. Tato jednotka pochází z publikace *A Course in English Language Teaching* (Ur 2012) a zabývá se možnými zdroji kulturního obsahu materiálů.

Diskuze (viz Kapitola 5) je založena na výsledcích analýzy a komentuje je ve vztahu k předchozímu výzkumu. Výsledky analýzy ukázaly, že výzkum v oblasti GEs a ELF se ve vybraných publikacích reflektuje spíše prakticky než teoreticky. To může naznačovat, že výzkum v oblasti GEs a ELF není pouze předmětem bádání, ale má také přínos v podobě doporučení, která jsou prakticky využitelná ve výuce. Skutečností ovšem zůstává, že míra

[83] Quinn Novotná (2012: 227) termín Lingua Franca Core (LFC) překládá jako ‘‘základní ‘jádro’ či pravidla efektivní výslovnosti v mezinárodní komunikaci v angličtině’’.

praktické využitelnosti se u jednotlivých jednotek liší. Zatímco některé jednotky představují doporučení, která jsou prakticky velice jednoduše využitelná v praxi, jiné jednotky pouze ukazují směr, jakým by se učitelé mohli vydat.

Globální role angličtiny patřila mezi dvě nejpočetnější kategorie, což naznačuje, že autoři publikací jsou seznámeni se současnou sociolingvistickou realitou angličtiny ve světě. Tato skutečnost se ne vždy odráží v ostatních kategoriích. To koresponduje s poznatky předchozího výzkumu. Dewey (2014) uvádí, že navzdory rozšířenému povědomí o globální roli angličtiny dochází k omezenému praktickému využití tohoto povědomí v praxi. Zatímco výsledky tohoto výzkumu ukázaly, že výzkum v oblasti GEs a ELF se ve zkoumaných publikacích objevuje, míra reflexe tohoto výzkumu se ve vztahu k jednotlivým kategoriím liší.

Témata, která se v kódovaných jednotkách objevovala nejčastěji, jsou výslovnost a schopnost porozumění mluveném jazyku. Kromě toho, že se tato témata objevují ve všech publikacích[84], se v jednotkách zaměřených na tato témata také objevuje drtivá většina odkazů na odbornou literaturu z oblasti GEs a ELF. Dva z autorů, konkrétně Ur (2012) a McDonough a kol. (2013), dokonce odkazují na koncept LFC (Jenkins 2000). Výsledky této analýzy tedy potvrzují pozici fonologie jako jedné z nejvýraznějších disciplín, co se týče propojení výzkumu a praxe[85].

Další jazykové prostředky, tzn. gramatika a slovní zásoba, nejsou zastoupeny ve velkém množství jednotek. Pouze jedna publikace, tj. Ur (2012), se zabývá výukou gramatiky. Její praktická doporučení ovšem nejsou příliš jasná, jelikož uvádí, že by studenti měli používat standardní gramatické konvence. Tyto konvence ale podle autorky nutně nemusí být takové, jaké používají rodilí mluvčí angličtiny. Vzhledem k tomu, že autorka neposkytuje další informace, není zřejmé, o jaké konvence se tedy jedná.

Situace je jiná ve vztahu k výuce slovní zásoby. Zde autorka doporučuje, aby se učitelé ve výuce věnovali výrazům, které pro posluchače v mezinárodní komunikaci budou lehce srozumitelné jako např. *two weeks* místo *fortnight*. Dále se doporučuje, aby učitelé u studentů pěstovali povědomí o potenciální příslušnosti určitých slov ke specifickým varietám

[84] S výjimkou *Materials and Methods in ELT* (McDonough a kol. 2013), kde se objevuje pouze téma výslovnosti z pohledu produkce, tzn. téma schopnosti porozumění mluvenému jazyku není zastoupeno.
[85] Jediná současná publikace (Walker 2010) z oblasti ELF zaměřená na učitele angličtiny se věnuje právě tématu výslovnosti (viz Jenkins 2012: 493); nedávné studie zabývající se vlivem globální role angličtiny na současné učebnice uvádí, že výzkum zabývající se fonologií se v materiálech do určité míry reflektuje (viz Dewey 2014; Quinn Novotná 2014).

angličtiny. Výuka slovní zásoby se také projevuje v několika jednotkách spadajících pod kategorii obecné, kde se autoři publikací, konkrétně Ur (2012) a McDonough a kol. (2013), zabývají výukou rozdílů mezi americkou a britskou angličtinou. Ostatní variety angličtiny, jak rodilé, tak nerodilé, ovšem nejsou zmíněny.

Další oblastí, která je minimálně zastoupena, je mezikulturní povědomí. Přestože se jedná o důležitý aspekt přípravy studentů na mezinárodní komunikaci (viz 2.4.4), toto téma se odráží pouze ve dvou analyzovaných publikacích. Studie ovšem ukazujÍ, že v současných učebnicích se toto téma vyskytuje (viz Lopriore a Vettorel 2013; Quinn Novotná 2014). Je tedy otázkou, proč není více zastoupené také v metodických příručkách pro učitele.

Důležitým aspektem mezinárodní komunikace jsou také komunikační strategie (viz 2.3.5). Přestože se toto téma ve zkoumaném materiálu objevuje, autoři dvou publikací, ve kterých toto téma figuruje, tj. Ur (2012) a McDonough a kol. (2013), se mu věnují pouze na úrovni teoretické diskuze. Neposkytují tedy žádná praktická doporučení, která by učitelům mohla pomoci při výuce těchto strategií. K podobným závěrům dochází i autoři nedávných studií zabývajících se reflexí výzkumu v oblasti GEs a ELF v učebnicích (viz Dewey 2014; Loprire a Vettorel 2015).

Závěr práce (viz Kapitola 6) shrnuje poznatky výzkumu a uvádí doporučení pro další výzkum. Obecně se dá říci, že analyzované publikace reflektují GEs a ELF především v oblasti výslovnosti. Mezikulturní povědomí a pragmatické strategie jsou témata, kterým by mohlo být věnováno více pozornosti. Jako možná oblast zájmu budoucího výzkumu se uvádí propojení kvalitativní analýzy s kvantitativní analýzou. Studie tohoto druhu by mohla odhalit, která publikace reflektuje výzkum v oblasti GEs a ELF v největší míře. Další oblastí výzkumu by mohlo být praktické využití analyzovaných publikací.

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Appendix 1

The following section provides an overview of all the units coded in the analysis. Each unit was assigned a code consisting of three parts:

1) Letter referring to the coded publication, i.e. **U** (Ur 2012), **S** (Scrivener 2011), **M** (McDonough et al. 2013), or **W** (Watkins 2014)

2) Letter referring to the coded category, i.e. **PR** (Production), **RE** (Reception), **GN** (General), **CP** (Culture (practice)), **GE** (Global role of English), or **CT** (Culture (theory)).

3) Number

Practice, Language, Production

Ur (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching*

1	U_PR_1	1	Fluency and accuracy The balance between fluency and accuracy is a good example of something that has not changed very much, in spite of some temporary fluctuations in fashion. It is important for our students to learn to use English both fluently and correctly so that they can get their message across effectively while using standard grammatical, lexical, phonological and spelling conventions. However, something that has changed is that these conventions are no longer necessarily those of native speakers. They are, rather, those which are used by the majority of fluent, educated speakers of the language in international communication. The grammatical, lexical, phonological and spelling conventions to be taught are not necessarily those of native speakers.[86]
2	U_PR_2	4	Language standards A question which many teachers in the previous generation had difficulty in answering was which of the major varieties of English to teach: British or American? This is no longer a relevant, or even an interesting, question. The question which needs to be asked is rather: which lexical, grammatical, phonological or orthographical (spelling) forms are most likely to be understood and used worldwide? These are the ones we

[86] The parts of the text that are printed in red express the main idea of the practical suggestions provided.

			should usually be teaching. For example, it is more useful to teach *two weeks* than *fortnight*, as *two weeks* is more universally used and understood. It is useful to encourage our students to pronounce the /r/ in words like *girl*, *teacher*, as this pronunciation is easier to understand and more transparent for those who know the written form. And it is likely to be more useful to teach the spelling of *organize* than *organise* – again for reasons of transparency, clarity and general acceptability. The same applies to choices we may need to make in the area of dialect, conventions of style and so on. The question should not be 'What does a Brit (or American, or Australian or whatever) say?' but rather 'What is likely to be most easily understood and accepted by other English speakers, native and non-native, around the world?' Teach the forms that are most likely to be understood and used worldwide.
3	U_PR_3	62	Appropriateness In order to know how to use an item, the student needs to know about its appropriateness for use in a certain context. Thus, it is useful for a student to know, for a particular item, if it is very common or relatively rare; or if it is usually used in writing or in speech, in formal or informal discourse. Some items may be 'taboo' in most social interactions; others may belong to certain varieties of English. For example, learners need to know that the word *weep* is virtually synonymous with *cry*, but it is more formal, tends to be used in writing more than in speech, and is in general much less common. Students need to be taught about the appropriateness of vocabulary items in different contexts (such as different English varieties) in order to be able to use them correctly.
4	U_PR_4	77	Teaching standard grammar Although the use of the variant forms mentioned above (such as *she like* and *the person which*) does not affect meaning and will not cause a breakdown in communication, it is arguable that we should mostly treat them as errors and encourage our students to use standard grammar (for exceptions see below). I use the term standard here to mean the uses which are seen by most speakers of English as internationally acceptable, not necessarily the usages associated with the 'native' varieties of English.

			Encourage students to use standard grammar, however, standard does not necessarily mean associated with the native varieties of English.
5	U_PR_5	128	Pronunciation .... Students do not need necessarily to model their accents on English native speakers – indeed, some native speakers are notoriously difficult to understand! – but their speech does need to be clear. Some learners consistently get particular sounds wrong, and as a result their speech is less 'comfortable' to listen to, and occasionally incomprehensible. In that case, you may wish to spend some lesson time improving your students' pronunciation. Students do not need to model their accents on NSs, but they must be intelligible.
6	U_PR_6	128	Sounds Some mispronunciations in international English conversations can actually bring about a breakdown in communication (Jenkins, 2002); for example, the substitution of a long /iː/ sound to the short /ɪ/ in a word like *live* (v.) which then sounds like *leave*. We do therefore need to make sure that our students are differentiating between these two sounds and using them correctly. Other common variants make very little difference: the pronunciation of the 'th' sounds /ð/ and /θ / as /d/ and /t /, or as /z / and /s/, does not, apparently, cause problems for most listeners. Make sure that students are differentiating between the above sounds; other sounds make very little difference.
7	U_PR_7	129	Rhythm The speech rhythm of native English speakers is stress-timed. This means that in each phrase or sentence certain words are stressed (usually the lexical words which carry the main content) and the other words are shortened to fit the rhythm. Therefore, how long each phrase or sentence takes to say depends on how many stresses there are in it. For example: My old GRANDfather used to go SWIMming in the middle of DeCEMber (three stresses) does not take much longer to say than My

			GRANDpa went SWIMming in DeCEMber (three stresses). Many other languages are syllable-timed: the time it takes to say a sentence depends on how many syllables there are. So the first of the sentences above, if pronounced according to syllable-timing (18 syllables) would take quite a lot longer to say than the second (10 syllables). However, so many people now speak English with syllable- rather than stress-timing – or a mixure – that both are becoming acceptable worldwide, and it may not be worth investing very much effort in training students to produce stress-timed speech themselves. [They do, however, need to be able to hear and understand both types: so it is important to give them a varied diet of different accents in listening comprehension.] You do not need to invest much effort in training students to produce stress-timed speech.
8	U_PR_8	129	Intonation The rules of intonation in English within native-speaker communities are fairly complex and difficult to teach: very few English textbooks, or teachers, attempt to provide rules or practice in these. The issue is complicated further by the fact that, as with rhythm and stress, the increase in the use of English as an international language has resulted in a proliferation of intonation patterns that are used, accepted and understood in spoken English worldwide. So it is probably not worth trying to teach rules of intonation, [and what we need to do, again, is provide our students with plenty of exposure to different accents and their accompanying intonations, within comprehensible listening texts.] You do not need to teach rules of intonation.
9	U_PR_9	130	Selected items may need explicit teaching The conclusion is, therefore, that it may not be useful to attempt to teach overall language rhythm or a comprehensive range of intonation patterns, but that there are certain items whose correct pronunciation does need to be insisted on. The most important of these are the following (see Jenkins, 2002): • **contrast between long and short vowels**, particularly /ɪ/ - /i:/; • all the consonants, with the exception, as mentioned above, of the /θ/ and /ð/ sounds, which do not seem to be essential for accurate

			communication; • in particular, **the contrast between voiced plosives** (/p/, /t/, /k/) **and unvoiced plosives** (/b/. /d/, /g/); • **initial consonant clusters**, e.g. the /pr/ in a word like *proper*; • **the use of intonation to signal stress of a particular word in a sentence**. You may find, however, that you may need to add to, or shorten, this list, in response to the particular needs of students in your own class. It may not be useful to teach overal language rhythm or a comprehensive range of intonation patterns, but you need to insist on correct pronunciation of certain items.

Scrivener (2011) *Learning Teaching*

10	S_PR_1	273-274	Voice settings … Before we go much further with pronunciation, there is one important question a teacher needs to consider, namely which pronunciation variety are you going to teach? …. The abbreviation 'RP ' refers to received pronunciation, a UK pronunciation variety, originally from south-east England, but sometimes regarded as a kind of standard educated British English pronunciation. UK-published coursebooks have mainly (but not exclusively) offered RP on their recordings. When teaching pronunciation, do you want your students to aim to approach an Rp accent themselves? Why? Why not? …. There used to be a fairly widespread (if unspoken) assumption in many teaching contexts that all students wanted and needed to learn to communicate in a way that sounded as close to a UK (or US or Australian) native speaker as possible. In fact, most learners are learning English to communicate with other non-mothertongue speakers, using

			English as a lingua franca (a language used to communicate between speakers of different mother tongues), and many will rarely - if ever - meet or need to speak with an RP-speaking native speaker. In such cases, we could make a good argument that RP is not the most useful variety for students to learn, and it may actually hinder their communication, as many people may not be able to follow them if they use RP features such as elisions, weak forms and the lack of an *Irl* sound in words like *car* or *hard.* Some of these issues are addressed in the section on World English in Chapter 6, Section 10. Whatever the political arguments, I think it is very hard to teach an accent that is not one you can naturally use yourself. So, for the moment, the work on pronunciation is this book is based on the following starting points: • Students need to learn pronunciation that will allow them to be understood in the contexts where they are most likely to need to use the language. A native accent, such as RP, may not be the most ideal pronunciation variety for students to learn to produce. You should teach an accent that students can naturally use themselves, and consider what type of pronunciation variety will be most useful for a particular student or a group of students.
11	S_PR_2	274	Voice settings … The activities and examples on the next few pages are based on using RP as a basic pronunciation. This is mainly because this is what is found in the majority of current international coursebooks (and because it happens to be my own pronunciation variety). You need to consider how much the advice and sample materials may need to be adapted for your own teaching needs. As you read through the following sections, here are four questions to consider: • Are the phonemes discussed in this book the same as the ones you use? • Which other features discussed are not part of your own

			pronunciation? • [Is it appropriate for your students to practise recognising features such as weak forms and elision?] • Is it appropriate for your students to practise producing features such as weak forms and elision? Consider the following question, i.e. Is it appropriate for your students to practise producing features such as weak forms and elision?
12	S_PR_3	282	Connected speech … I think I might say it naturally as: /' wDtJs gana 'duwsbaudi/ Where has the /t/ in /it/ gone? It has been lost (elided). Where has the /t/ in /ə'baut/ gone? It has changed (assimilated) into /d/. The unstressed syllables also have weak vowel sounds /ə/ or /i/. … This is a realistic, if relatively 'fluent', pronunciation of the sentence. It reflects the fact that my speech is British English. [Your students probably need to be able to recognise and understand such sentences], even if you don't want them to produce language like this. In fact, it's worth remembering that one of the main problems learners have with listening to English is that they can't recognize pronunciations that are entirely different from what they are expecting. For example, if a student expects to hear /wDt a:(r) ju:/ but instead hears /'wotjs/, they may well not register at all that it represents the same words. So a key point to remember is that it's vital to teach pronunciation – not just for the students' own speech production, [but to help them listen better.] You do not necessarily need to insists on learners' producing connected speech.
13	S_PR_4	282	Analysing connected speech

			…. But what is a realistic language model to expect students to produce? The very ‘fluent’ model I use? The sentence based on ‘citation’ forms? This is a decision for the individual teacher, but I think it’s reasonable to offer students something as close as possible to your own spoken pronunciation - the language you actually speak yourself. And in most cases, this will have at least some of the fluency features I’ve mentioned. I can’t see much point in getting students to repeat the citation-form versions of a sentence, though a surprisingly high number of teachers do, sometimes believing it to be a ‘good’, ‘correct’ or ‘perfect’ version of English. It’s not. Even people who argue forcefully that they are ‘certain’ that they don’t say /ta/ or /waz/ or / 'gana/ almost certainly do say them. In many varieties of spoken English, it is normal to use weak forms, elision and assimilation, because it make sentences much easier to say. As a teacher, you probably need to offer realistic (but not extreme) fluent samples: /'wot a ja gsuir ta 'dui abaut it/ This occupies a ‘fluency place’ on the continuum between the extremes of the unnatural-sounding citation form and the very rapid, reduced speech you might hear in some social contexts. Offer students something as close as possible to your spoken pronunciation, i.e. not necessarily the model the author uses (being a native speaker)

McDonough et al. (2013) *Materials and Methods in ELT*

14	M_PR_1	159-161	8.5 Teaching pronunciation The teaching of pronunciation is carried out in many different ways, and for different reasons. Sometimes whole lessons may be devoted to it; sometimes teachers deal with it simply as it arises. Some teachers may like to ‘drill’ correct pronunciation habits, others are more concerned that their students develop comprehensibility within fluency. Behind such different approaches to teaching pronunciation lie different beliefs and

attitudes towards the kind of English that is the target of learning. Traditionally, 'a native speaker model' (itself a complex notion for a language like English with so many varieties) seems to have been regarded as ideal by many EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers and learners. Many tests and examinations seem to be based on such beliefs. English nowadays, however, has come to be used globally as a contact language (i.e. English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)) for communication by speakers of different languages (Jenkins et al., 2011). In ELF, native-speaker norms become less relevant. Imagine an international convention held in China where medical experts from various continents gather. Would it matter at all if an NNSE's (non-native speaker of English) pronunciation does not simulate a particular variety of NSE (native speakers of English)? Will these medical experts be considered as failed NSEs when they are eloquently and effectively speaking in one of their world Englishes? Jenkins et al. (2011: 284) point out that non-native speakers can be in fact '– more often – highly skilled communicators who make use of their multilingual resources in ways not available to monolingual NSEs, and who are found to prioritize successful communication over narrow notions of "correctness"' (see also Seidlhofer, 2010). If we are to embrace this new notion of fluid and dynamic varieties of English used by NNSEs as a Lingua Franca (ELF), many assumptions of English language teaching will have to be reconsidered. Jenkins et al. (2011: 297) reflect thus: 'The challenge for ELF researchers and, even more, for English teaching professionals then is to find ways of dealing with this variability so that it can be incorporated into teaching in ways that are digestible for learners'.

Challenged by such new insights and situations, no one approach can be said to be universally applicable. As Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994: 6) write: 'the task of pronunciation teaching . . . is to establish models for guidance, not norms for imitation'. Certainly a native speaker model is unrealistic for the great majority of learners, and 'perfection' is an unattainable goal.

There are, nevertheless, a number of key aspects of pronunciation and the English sound system that a teacher can in principle attend to. Some of them are 'bottom-up', dealing with both forming and hearing sounds as 'intelligibly' as possible; others are 'top-down', where a learner's pronunciation is part of a broader communicative approach. This is a balance, in other words, between 'accuracy' on the one hand and 'intelligibility' on the other.

Common advice on how to increase intelligibility includes the following:

- Individual sounds, including areas of difficulty for speakers of particular languages (e.g. l/r for Japanese, p/b for Arabic speakers), minimal pairs (bit/bat, hit/hate etc.). This may also be accompanied by ear training, and sometimes by teaching students to read the phonemic alphabet – useful of course for dictionary work.

- Word stress, which exhibits a number of key patterns in English.

- Sentence stress and rhythm. In a stress-timed language like English, this is of particular importance, because both 'regular' and 'marked' stress patterns essentially carry the message of a stretch of speech: Harmer (2001b: 193) gives the example of 'I lent my sister 10 pounds for a train ticket last week' as spoken with regular stress patterns, and then with varying the stress to emphasize different words. Again, it is useful to link this to listening practice as well.

- Intonation, significant in conveying messages about mood and intention. We might consider the different meanings in varying the intonation in such a simple sentence as 'that's interesting': we can sound bored, ironic, surprised or, indeed, interested.

- Sound and spelling, which in English are in a complex relationship.

Jenkins (2007) and Deterding (2010), based on their research on successful users of ELF, identify features of pronunciation that contribute to intelligibility in various world Englishes:

It has been shown that, although there are substantial differences between the Englishes . . . , some features seem to be shared, particularly the avoidance of the dental fricatives, . . . the use of full vowels in function words and the unstressed syllables of polysyllabic words, and syllable-based rhythm. We might note that all these features fit in perfectly with the Lingua Franca Core (LFC), the set of pronunciation

			features which Jenkins (2007) suggests as essential for successful international communication. (Deterding, 2010: 396) If we place intelligibility as the target, then some of the common advice on pronunciation seems to lose its full force. For example, should or should not a teacher emphasize the importance of sentence stress and rhythm (i.e. stress-timed rhythm) when recent research seems to show that syllable-based rhythm is sufficient for successful communication? Jenkins et al. (2011) warn against the prescriptive use of research findings: ELF research, then, is not about determining what should or should not be taught in the language classroom. Rather, ELF researchers feel their responsibility is to make current research findings accessible in a way that enables teachers to reconsider their beliefs and practices and make informed decisions about the significance of ELF for their own individual teaching contexts. (Jenkins et al., 2011: 306) More detailed discussion on the teaching of pronunciation is to be found in Kelly (2000) and Burns and Seidlhofer (2010). Kelly (2000) has a chapter on spelling and pronunciation. Coursebooks include Hancock and Donna (2012) and Hewings (2004). Those who would like to read further on ELF should see Seidlhofer (2011). Kirkpatrick (2010) tackles very similar issues from the perspectives of World Englishes. There are a number of key aspects of pronunciation and the English sound system that teachers can attend to in order to increase intelligibility, such as individual phonemes and word stress.

Watkins (2014) *Learning to Teach English*

15	W_PR_1	53	Do we need to teach pronunciation? …. We need to remember, however, that communicative competence does not imply the need to speak with a native-like accent. The majority of learners will never sound like native speakers and there is no reason why they should. Many learners rarely speak to native speakers but need to use English to speak to other non-native speakers, using English as a

			commong language. A more realistic, and perhaps preferable, goal for learners is to become easily intelligible and to speak with a reasonably natural rhythm so that no undue burden is placed on the person they are speaking to. There are few obvious benefits in them sounding exactly like a native speaker. Some teachers (both native and non-native speakers) worry about teaching pronunciation because they perceive themselves as having a strong accent. This idea tends to be based on the idea that ther is a prestige form of English (actually considered to be something akin to the pronunciation of a traditional BBC presenter) which is in some way better than other forms of English. However, there is nothing about a particular variety of English which makes it instrinsically better than any other and therefore teachers should concern themselves with providing a natural model of English rather than worrying about which model that is. Provide a natural model of English rather than worrying about which model that is.
16	W_PR_2	55	Connected speech When people speak quite quickly and produce a stream of words there is often an effect on how individual words sound. Small changes can occur in how words are pronounced when compared to how they may be pronounced in isolation. It is important that learners are not distracted by these changes when listening and remain able to recognise what they hear. [Teachers are probably best advised to focus their attention on this decoding] rather than worry too much about their learners producing the effects of connected speech. You do not need to worry about learners producing the effects of connected speech.

Practice, Language, Reception

Ur (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching*

17	U_RE_1	104	Pronunciation The pronunciation of words is often slurred and noticeably different from the phonological representation shown in a dictionary and taught to students. There are obvious examples in English, such as *can't* for

			cannot, which have made their way even into the written language. Less obvious examples include the use of the neutral vowel sound 'schwa' in the pronunciation of 'weak' forms (such as /əv/ for 'of') and elision, the disappearance of one or more of the sounds (*orright* for 'all right' or *Sh'we go?* for 'Shall we go?'). However, there is some evidence (Jenkins, 2002) that fully competent English speakers with a different mother tongue tend to pronounce words fairly closely to the way they are written and formally pronounced, which of course makes them more clearly comprehensible. Even so, the pronunciation features described above are still very widespread, and learners need to have opportunities to encounter and understand them. Provide learners with opportunities to encounter NS pronunciation features such as elision.
18	U_RE_2	105	Varied accents Another feature not shown in the sample above, but which we need to take into account, is the wide variation in the way English words are pronounced by people coming from different speech communities, whether native or non-native. We probably mostly listen to people who speak a similar variety of English to our own, but we need to be able to cope with other accents in various situations outside our home community. Take into account the wide variation in the way English words are pronounced by people coming from different speech communities, as students need to be able to cope with other accents in various situations outside their home community.
19	U_RE_3	105	Summary Most listening comprehension texts probably need to be based on informal, improvised English, spoken by a visible speaker using colloquial pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, featuring both 'noise' and 'redundancy' and affording students opportunities to hear a variety of accents, since these represent the kinds of listening they will need to be able to cope with. Provide students with opportunities to hear a variety of accents.
20	U_RE_4	106	Practical tips ….

			5. Make sure you include a varied sample of listening texts. These should probably be mostly in informal conversational English, as suggested above. However, occasional formal speech types and texts representing a variety of contexts and varieties of English should also be provided. There is a wide range of recorded texts on the Internet, both audio and video, some of which are accompanied by listening comprehension tasks. Make sure you include a varied sample of listening texts.
21	U_RE_5	129	Rhythm The speech rhythm of native English speakers is stress-timed. This means that in each phrase or sentence certain words are stressed (usually the lexical words which carry the main content) and the other words are shortened to fit the rhythm. Therefore, how long each phrase or sentence takes to say depends on how many stresses there are in it. For example: My old GRANDfather used to go SWIMming in the middle of DeCEMber (three stresses) does not take much longer to say than My GRANDpa went SWIMming in DeCEMber (three stresses). Many other languages are syllable-timed: the time it takes to say a sentence depends on how many syllables there are. So the first of the sentences above, if pronounced according to syllable-timing (18 syllables) would take quite a lot longer to say than the second (10 syllables). [However, so many people now speak English with syllable- rather than stress-timing – or a mixure – that both are becoming acceptable worldwide, and it may not be worth investing very much effort in training students to produce stress-timed speech themselves.] They do, however, need to be able to hear and understand both types: so it is important to give them a varied diet of different accents in listening comprehension. Give students a varied diet of different accents in listening comprehension.
22	U_RE_6	129	Intonation The rules of intonation in English within native-speaker communities are fairly complex and difficult to teach: very few English textbooks, or teachers, attempt to provide rules or practice in these. The issue is

			complicated further by the fact that, as with rhythm and stress, the increase in the use of English as an international language has resulted in a proliferation of intonation patterns that are used, accepted and understood in spoken English worldwide. [So it is probably not worth trying to teach rules of intonation], and what we need to do, again, is provide our students with plenty of exposure to different accents and their accompanying intonations, within comprehensible listening texts. Provide students with plenty of exposure to different accents and their accompanying intonations.

Scrivener (2011) *Learning Teaching*

23	S_RE_1	274	Voice settings … The activities and examples on the next few pages are based on using RP as a basic pronunciation. This is mainly because this is what is found in the majority of current international coursebooks (and because it happens to be my own pronunciation variety). You need to consider how much the advice and sample materials may need to be adapted for your own teaching needs. As you read through the following sections, here are four questions to consider: • Are the phonemes discussed in this book the same as the ones you use? • Which other features discussed are not part of your own pronunciation? • Is it appropriate for your students to practise recognising features such as weak forms and elision? • [Is it appropriate for your students to practise producing features such as weak forms and elision?] Consider the following question, i.e. Is it appropriate for your students to practise recognising features such as weak forms and elision?
24	S_RE_2	282	Connected speech …

			I think I might say it naturally as: /' wDtJs gana 'duwsbaudi/ Where has the /t/ in /it/ gone? It has been lost (elided). Where has the /t/ in /ə'baut/ gone? It has changed (assimilated) into /d/. The unstressed syllables also have weak vowel sounds /ə/ or /i/. … This is a realistic, if relatively 'fluent', pronunciation of the sentence. It reflects the fact that my speech is British English. Your students probably need to be able to recognise and understand such sentences, [even if you don't want them to produce language like this.] In fact, it's worth remembering that one of the main problems learners have with listening to English is that they can't recognize pronunciations that are entirely different from what they are expecting. For example, if a student expects to hear /wDt a:(r) ju:/ but instead hears /'wotjs/, they may well not register at all that it represents the same words. So a key point to remember is that it's vital to teach pronunciation – [not just for the students' own speech production,] but to help them listen better. Students need to be able to understand connected speech.

Watkins (2014) *Learning to Teach English*

25	W_RE_1	7	What do you think? …. 4 The best form of English is that spoken in the UK, the home of English. (See Chapter 1) While people may have a personal preference for one variety of English over another (based on how it sounds, for example), there is nothing instrinsically better about one form over another. English is used around the world both as a native language and as a second language. Indeed, most learners use English as a lingua franca – a language that allows them to communicate with other non-native speakers. This suggests that most learners are best served by being exposed to a range of accents and

			varieties of English, with no one variety being given particular status. Expose learners to a range of accents and varieties of English, with no one variety being given particular status.
26	W_RE_2	53	Everyone has an accent and accents are important as they form part of our identity – who we are. Teachers need not hide their natural accent and no particular accent is intrinsically 'better' than any other. Most learners of English are more likely to use English with other non-native speakers and so it could be argued that adjusting to this teacher's accent could be just as useful as adjusting to a native speaker accent. Do not hide you natural accent as adjusting to a NNS accent may be useful for students' ability to understand spoken English in international communication.
27	W_RE_3	55	Connected speech When people speak quite quickly and produce a stream of words there is often an effect on how individual words sound. Small changes can occur in how words are pronounced when compared to how they may be pronounced in isolation. It is important that learners are not distracted by these changes when listening and remain able to recognise what they hear. Teachers are probably best advised to focus their attention on this decoding [rather than worry too much about their learners producing the effects of connected speech.] Focus your attention on the decoding of connected speech.
28	W_RE_4	70	Sources of material Provide learners with examples of different speakers so that they listen to varieties of English other than their teacher. Remember, many people use English to speak to other non-native speakers and so not all the accents need necessarily be from the UK or other places that use English as a first language. Provide learners with examples of different speakers so that they listen to varieties of English other than their teacher.

Practice, Language, General

Ur (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching*

29	U_GN_1	269	Teaching methods and materials As mentioned earlier, adults tend to learn the language well through conscious learning strategies. They benefit from explicit descriptions of language, explanations of grammar, and detailed definitions of meanings. They appreciate opportunities to apply language rules in focused exercises. Many are also interested in learning 'about' the language: for example, the etymology of particular words, comparisons between American and British English, or contrasts with their own language. However, they also need plenty of communicative practice, in all four skills. When teaching adults, one of the topics to be potentially included is differences between American and British English.

Scrivener (2011) *Learning Teaching*

30	S_GN_1	120-121	World Englishes …. Imagine you are a Brazilian teacher of English who has just started a contract to work in a rural school in Tanzania. What variety of English is it appropriate to base your teaching on – your own? East African English? UK English? US English? An international English? …. 'What can I teach?' is a question that many teachers face, especially if they take on work outside their home country. There is no simple answer, and there may be many constraints on what you choose (e.g. which coursebook you have). My brief, perhaps simplistic, answer is that I think you need to be aware of:

			• what your students need and expect; • what you are realistically able to do; • the impact your choices might have in the long term, personally, locally, nationally and globally. Your learners' needs, such as having to take an exam that requires a certain variety of English or needing to communicate in particular context, are probably paramount concerns. One approach I have seen a number of teachers adopting is that of being completely open acknowledging the range of Englishes available and raising it for discussion and choice; for example, after playing a recording saying 'Well, the person on the recording said … but, myself, I say … and here in this town, I've noticed that people say …'. When deciding what variety to base your teaching on, be aware of what your students need and expect.
31	S_GN_2	273	Voice settings … • It is often appropriate and honest to (a) teach the pronunciation you speak yourself; (b) draw attention to local variations you are aware of; (c) highlight differences in accent that appear in course material. Teach the pronunciation you speak yourself, draw attention to local variations you are aware of, higlight differences in accent that appear in course material.

McDonough et al. (2013) *Materials and Methods in ELT*

32	M_GN_1	133	6.11 Vocabulary: Other Possibilities Depending on the types of learners we are dealing with, there is also the possibility of looking at lexical fields in a subject area such as economics or science where associated vocabulary items are linked to a wider picture. New inventions lead to the introduction of neologisms or new words and expressions in the language, which can be a rich source of

			vocabulary development work. In recent years, we have seen the introduction of new subjects and expressions such as ‘ecommerce’; ‘email virus’; ‘surfing the Net’; ‘wading through a ton of emails’ and so on. Given the nature of English as a global or international language, some teachers may wish to concentrate on aspects of vocabulary that differ in, say, British and American English. You may wish to concentrate on aspects of vocabulary that differ in British and American English.

Practice, Culture (practice)

Ur (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching*

33	U_CP_1	5	The place of English literature and culture of the English-speaking peoples Methodology books of the twentieth century typically talk of the culture of the English-speaking peoples as the ‘target culture’ and assume that reading texts in course materials should be copied or adapted from ‘authentic’ texts from English-speaking countries. This also has changed. Courses today may include not only texts from English-speaking countries, but also those written in English, or translated into it, from anywhere in the world. And in most teaching contexts, it is inappropriate to talk about a ‘target‘ culture, meaning a native-speaker one. Most learners need to become aware of a diverse, international, cosmopolitan set of cultural norms, literature, art forms and so on, rather than those of a single community (see Unit 15: Teaching content, pp. 218-19, 223). It is, therefore, more important these days to foster multicultural awareness on the part of our students than to teach them particular codes of conduct or literary traditions (Byram, 1997). We cannot, obviously, teach them all the cultures of the world. However, we can expose them to a sample through our materials, make them sensitive to the kinds of differences from their own cultures that they may come accross and foster intercultural competence (see Unit 15: Teaching content, pp. 219-20). Expose students to a sample of different cultures of the world.
34	U_CP_2	204; 207-208	Adapting course materials

			… **Suad** (teaching in a girls' school in Egypt): The reading pasaage is culturally inappropriate for my adolescent female students. In our culture it is not acceptable for young people to have girlfriends and boyfriends or 'go out'. So I have a problem with the following reading passage, though the rest of the book is excellent.) … **Suad: cultural inappropriateness.** There are various options here, and which you choose depends on various factors: the opinions and personalities of the students, their parents' attitudes, your own cultural background and beliefs, and school policy. 1. You can simply skip this reading passage, which may mean omitting an entire unit. Or you could replace it with one you find yourself. 2. If you have a digital copy of the text, you could either delete the inappropriate paragraph, or change the text so that the woman's problem is something more acceptable to your students' culture. 3. You might use the text as it is, and simply acknowledge that this relates to a foreign culture and would not be acceptable at home. 4. You might go further: take the opportunity to draw students' attention to the differences in cultural norms between the USA and the home culture and discuss the issue of cultural differences in general. Use a potentially inappropriate reading passage as a tool for comparing the differences between the home culture and a foreign culture.
35	U_CP_3	217	Why different courses emphasize some types of content and not others depends largely on the objectives of the course. If your students are immigrants whose purpose is to integrate into an English-speaking community, then topics that are based on that community will be very important. If, on the other hand, they are learning English as an international language for general communication purposes, then such content will be less prominent. If the course is ESP, then the content will focus on engineering, medicine, tourism or whatever the particular goal of the course is. If you are a schoolteacher and see yourself as an

			educator as much as an instructor in English, you may want to emphasize educational content: so you might prefer to choose a coursebook that emphasizes different educational issues or world or general knowledge. If your students are planning to integrate into an English-speaking communicty, topics that are based on that community will be important; if not, and the goal is to learn English for international communication, topics based on a native English-speaking community will be less important.
36	U_CP_4	219-220	Intercultural competence The concept of *intercultural competence* has already been mentioned in Unit 1: English teaching today. It refers to a person's ability to function in a cultural context that is not his or her own, to be aware of and respect the cultures of other people, and to behave in a way that will be acceptable to them. The content of teaching materials has a crucial role to play here. It can teach students about a – necessarily limited – range of aspects of cultures different from their own and also raise cultural awareness and attitudes of tolerance and respect for people from different backgrounds. This means including texts and tasks that look at different cultural norms, as well as drawing students' attention to cultural implications in other texts that they might not otherwise notice. Cultural awareness does not relate only to the cultures of other people. One useful by-product of attention to the cultures of other communities is the raised awareness of feature sof one's own culture in contrast. Linked to this is increased sensitivity to how one's own cultural norms might appeal to others. It -p. 220 is important for our students to detach themselves from an ethnocentric point of view (which is perhaps inevitable in younger learners), see their own community as part of a worldwide mosaic, and to begin to learn about the differences and relationships between them. Include texts and tasks that look at different cultural norms, and draw student's attention to cultural implicatons in other texts that they might not otherwise notice.
37	U_CP_5	223	Literature as a component of the English course It used to be taken for granted that the literature taught to learners of English should be classic British or American literature. Later this was

			expanded to include more modern English literature, and works written by authors from other countries where English is an official or major language such as Canada, Nigeria or India. More recently, the range has been widened still further to include translated literature. Most of us are teaching English today as an international language, for purpose of global communication. It makes sense, therefore, to choose literature from as wide a range of sources as possible, including all the categories mentioned above. Choose literature from as wide a range of sources as possible.

McDonough et al. (2013) *Materials and Methods in ELT*

38	M_CP_1	96-103	**5.6 Networked Technologies: Computers, Communication and Collaboration** … The synchronous conversation on the next page demonstrates the opportunities that exchange with other L2 users can bring. In exploiting computermediated communication (CMC), it is worth reflecting on the nature of the tool and the type of language we tend to see within. Other CMC tools have different attributes to the chat tool that was used in this encounter, and these impact on the characteristics of the language generated. Asynchronous tools such as email or forum spaces provide more thinking time, allowing learners to rehearse language use before committing to sharing their ideas (Slaouti, 2000). Thinking more broadly about how available tools can support interaction then brings us to further dimensions of this networked picture. There are various examples of exchange projects that have aimed at developing both language and intercultural awareness through computer mediated collaborative activity using both longer standing CMC tools and Web 2.0 spaces (see e.g. Liaw and Johnson, 2001; O'Dowd, 2007; Lee, 2009). We turn our attention to the collaborative activity itself. The synchronous extract we have just read is from the early stages of a collaboration in which the two participants explored each other's shared and diverse perspectives on cultural values. This was not an open discussion, but framed by a staged process. They were encouraged to 'meet' synchronously to get to know each other and to negotiate their

			project focus. This involved individually brainstorming associations with keywords such as ‘family’ and ‘the Internet’, and then deciding on one theme which they mutually found interesting to explore together. They used different technologies to support that exploration: the generation of ‘word clouds’ around their theme using http://www.wordle.net/ (figure 5.4); the sharing of anecdotes, interesting online texts, YouTube clips or other media content. The learners in their international settings were brought together via a class wiki built using http://pbworks.com/ (figure 5.5). This latter was not only a home base for all of the different project pairs, but the location for their negotiation of the final project outcome, a summary of their explorations to their class colleagues. From each wiki page, learners provided a link to a short online presentation of what they had learnt from each other using *Prezi* (http://prezi.com/). … The examples here illustrate the potential of technology to create bridges out from our learners’ cultural contexts. They also exemplify technology as a vehicle for extending the locus of language learning activity. Such thinking is not exclusive to intercultural exchanges. As identified earlier in this book, much of our work as language teachers involves encouraging and scaffolding learning which extends beyond the bounds of the physical classroom. Many institutions have a virtual learning environment which they may have purchased; they may alternatively use Moodle, which is a well-known open source environment, and teachers are usually invited to populate these with materials and activities that may either be used in class, or as a selfaccess resource – very often both. Many teachers harness the tools we have mentioned earlier to provide a more local, personal home base for independent learning. In figure 5.7 we see a teacher blog, created using https://www.blogger.com, and dedicated to listening sources, a combination of embedded video clips from Youtube and RSS feeds to podcasts, for example, from the BBC Learning English web site. Each of these is tagged, that is, labelled, according to recommended minimum language level, general theme and specific source, allowing learners to navigate their way through. Guidance can be provided through a comment feature on each post; a widget is added to poll on what they would like to see more of. Thoughtful planning around available functionality soon allows for a simple but effective resource to be easily built.

			As we consider how these find a place in our practice, we would do well to reflect on the words of Cochran-Smith, reviewing the research literature in 1991 on word processing and writing, who wrote that computer use is dependent on the learning organisation of the classroom which, in reciprocal fashion, may also be shaped and changed by the capacities of computer technology to accommodate new patterns of social organisation and interaction. (Cochran-Smith, 1991: 122) We have illustrated in this chapter how the technology itself is not only able to accommodate new patterns of previously unanticipated patterns of interaction; it is in fact beginning to have a very firm influence on where our classroom practice is going. As we also suggested, more and more learners have access to computer-mediated communications technologies outside their learning environment. The fact that networked technologies exist, and that more people access them as authentic tools as part of their lives, is resulting in teachers looking for ways in which to accommodate the patterns of interaction the technology brings.

Theory, Global role of English

Ur (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching*

39	U_GE_1	2	Different styles and Englishes … There is also a large number of different varieties of English (Kirkpatrick, 2007), each associated with a particular local community (e.g. Singlish in Singapore), social group (e.g. teenager English in any native-speaking community) or profession (e.g. legal English).
40	U_GE_2	4	English as an international language Perhaps the most dramatic development that has taken place in the field of English language teaching in the last 50 years has been the shift in its primary function: from being mainly the native language of nations such as the UK or USA, to being mainly a global means of communication. The speakers of English whose L1 is another language already vastly outnumber native English speakers, and their number continues to grow. For most of its learners, English is therefore no longer a foreign language

			(i.e. one that is owned by a particular 'other' nation or ethnic group) but first and foremost an international language (one that has no particular national owner) (Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006). This development has brought with it a number of changes in the principles and practice of English language teaching.
41	U_GE_3	5	The native and non-native English teacher English teachers who speak the language as an additional rather than as a native language are, as implied above, the majority worldwide. The English spoken by such teachers, if they are (as they should be!) fully competent and fluent in the language, is also likely to be a better model of international English for their students than any 'native' variety. In addition, they have been through the same learning process as their students. They have insights into the kinds of problems that are likely to come up and how to deal with them. And they can function as role models: 'If I can do it, so can you!' This is not to say that native English-speaker teachers cannot be effective teachers: of course they can. The point is that they are not necessarily superior to their non-native colleagues. Many teach very successfully in schools in non-English-speaking countries of the world (this is my own teaching background and that of many of my native-speaker colleagues). They are particularly in demand in some language schools whose students expect to be taught by 'native speakers', and in situations where the language is taught as a preparation for study or work in an English-speaking country.
42	U_GE_4	6	The Place of the L1 It has been taken for granted in the past that the aim of an English course is to make the learners communicate like native speakers. This is for most learners an inaccessible goal; and these days it is not even an appropriate one. Even if the aim is to communicate with, among others, native speakers, this does not necessarily mean trying to be a 'native speaker' oneself. The appropriate model in most cases, as suggested above, is probably the non-native speaker teacher. For most students today, English is a tool, like basic artihmetic, or literacy, or computer skills: an ability they need to master in order to function effectively in today's world.

43	U_GE_5	10	Integrative and instrumental motivation The term integrative and instrumental motivation are associated with the work of the Canadian researchers Lambert and Gardner (Gardner, 1991). Integrative motivation refers to the desire of the learner to learn the language in order to integrate into the community of speakers of that language. Instrumental motivation, in contrast, refers to the need to learn the language for material or educational benefit: to get a better job, for example, or to progresss to advanced study. The original Canadian study found that integrative motivation was the more important of the two. More recent studies of learners of English in different countries, however, have found the opposite (e.g. Warden & Hsui, 2000). This is probably because of the changing role of English worldwide discussed earlier, and the fact that learners today need English for a variety of instrumental purposes rather than in order to join a particular English-speaking community.
44	U_GE_6	102	Goals and problems in teaching listening …. The main goal of teaching listening is to enable our students eventually to cope with the natural listening situations that they are most likely to encounter in real life. And those situations will probably display most of the features above. Student of today have far fewer problems with this than I did, for two main reasons. First, as we have seen on pp. 4-6, English as an international language is spoken mainly between people who have learnt English as an additional language. In order to ensure successful communication, such speakers make an effort to speak clearly and use a variety of communication strategies to make sure they understand and are understood (see research summarized by Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 218).
45	U_GE_7	128-129	Sounds … It is interesting that in some cases native-speaker pronunciation may actually be less readily comprehensible for the majority of English speakers than that of non-natives. It is a common experience for conference-goers who are non-native speakers of English to find the lectures given by other non-natives far easier to understand that those given by native speakers: largely because of their pronunciation. The

			shortened pronunciation, or even elimination, of unstressed syllables (the use of the schwa for 'weak' forms such as /əv/ instead of /ɒv/ for 'of', /tə/ instead of /tuː/ for *to*, or the word *police* pronounced as /pliːs/ instead of /pɒliːs/ may sometimes cause difficulties in comprehension. In general, the nearer the pronunciation is to the actual spelling of a word, the more likely it is to be easily understood by the majority of speakers worldwide.

Scrivener (2011) *Learning Teaching*

46	S_GE_1	118-119	World Englishes English is a countable noun. There are many Englishes. Only a few years ago, teachers could work on an assumption that there was esentially one English language which was ʿownedʾ by a small number of countries where it was spoken (with some widely known variations) as a native language: the USA, the UK, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and a few more. Teachers viewed these as ʿcorrectʾ models and could choose whether to base their course on, say, UK English or US English. But there are many other varieties of English. In some places English has a second (or third) language status and may be used for education, law or government, for example: Singapore English, Nigerian English, Filipino English, Kenyan Engish, Pakistani English. In addition, English is widely used as a *lingua franca* (= a language in common) between people from different countries who do not speak eacher otherʾs native tongues, whether in face-to-face interaction or via phone or the Internet. So, for example, when a Greek businesswoman meets a Vietnamese businessman, the one language they are most likely to both know (even if it is only at a very elementary level) is English. In 1985, Braj Kachru proposed visualing this usage as three concentric circles of English, see Figure 5.1. The inner circle represents the countries where people would consider English as their first language. The outer circle contains all those countries where English is not a first language but has historic roots, for example, countries of the Commonwealth.

			The expanding circle represents all the countries where English is not formally a central part of the country's systems but where many people still study it as a foreign language and use it as a lingua franca. This circle is expanding constantly. It is probably more than twice the size of either the inner or outer circles. Kachru suggested that the models of correct language are mainly set by the inner circle but that the outer circle is starting to create its own norms. David Graddol argues that the situation has already changed a lot since 1985 and that many supposed foreign language users are now so proficient in English that it is more like a second language for them. He proposes that we should consider levels of proficiency in English rather than country of origin – with an inner circle containing the highly proficient users – the 'functional natives'. In some countries where English is neither a first or a second language (e.g. many Northern European countries) there may be very large numbers of highly proficient near-native speaker English users.
47	S_GE_2	119-120	English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) The vast majority of English-language interaction in the world is not between native speakers, but between non-native speakers. Having a native speaker join a conversation between non-native speakers is often actually a hindrance for them. The native speaker may be less experienced at understanding a range of varieties of English, less aware of his own language use and less able to adjust its complexity and cultural references to make it more accessible for people from other countries. Which raises an increasingly important (and increasingly difficult) question for teachers: what English is it appropriate to teach my students? Is an 'inner circle' native-speaker model still appropriate? Some writers and researchers have proposed that we should no longer be teaching English based on native-speaker models of correct grammar, pronunciation an cultural conventions. What, they argue, is the point of forcing students to practise saying weak forms schwa pronunciations of auxiliary verbs was and were in the way that someone in the South of England might do? If the majority of non-native speakers meeting together do not use these features, might it actually be hindering

			intelligibility to work on these? The alternative may be to work out what the lingua franca core is – an international version of English, a standard Global English. This would not be invented, but discovered by researching and analysing how non-native users speak when they come together.
48	S_GE_3	120	Task 80: Your students' interactions needs Do the students you work with need English to communicate with English mother-tongue speakers? Or are they more likely to be using English as a language to interact with other non-native users? … In many places, language teaching has for some time seemed quite UK-centric (or US-centric), with coursebooks drawing a lot on the UK/US culture and with language samples mainly using one variety of pronunciation. There may also be an unstated assumption that learners will visit the UK or USA and need English mainly to communicate with locals there. But many learners who study the language have no intention of going to these places, and they may well not be learning English to communicate with native speakers, but in order to use it as a lingua franca, enabling them to meet (and maybe do business with) people from all over the world.

McDonough et al. (2013) *Materials and Methods in ELT*

49	M_GE_1	32-33	2.3 Some Claims for Current Materials In the previous section, we have looked at the impact of CLT and its implications for materials and methods. We have also considered some controversies and debates. An obvious question, when discussing developments in materials design after CLT, is whether the influences can be detected in current materials after many debates and the test of time. Nunan (1999: 2) thinks that 'contemporary practice represents an evolution, and . . . the best practice incorporates the best of "traditional" practice rather than rejecting it'. We need, then, to ask to what extent current materials show evolution while retaining the best legacies. Let us now look at the kinds of claims that are being made, taken from the blurbs of a number of published global coursebooks (italics are ours): • 'It enables you to learn English *as it is used in our globalized world*, to

			learn through English using information-rich topics, and to learn about *English as an international language*'. '. . . offers a comprehensive range of *interactive digital components for use in class, out of class and even on the move*. These include *extra listening, video material and online practice*'. (Clandfield and Jeffries, 2010) • 'With its *wide range of support materials*, it meets the *diverse needs of learners* in *a variety of teaching situations* and helps to *bridge the gap between the classroom and the real world*'. (Clare and Wilson, 2011) • '*Natural, real-world grammar and vocabulary* help students to *succeed in social, professional and academic settings*'. (Dellar and Walkley, 2010) • '. . . is an *integrated skills* series which is designed to offer flexibility with *different teaching and learning styles*'. '*fully integrated grammar*, *skills and lexical syllabuses* provide a balanced learning experience' '*Contextualised vocabulary* focuses on *authentic real-world language*' '*Clearly structured grammar presentations* are reinforced with *extensive practice*' '*Free MP3 files* for all activities in the Student's Book *available online*'. (Harmer, 2012) • '. . . prepares learners to *use English independently for global communication*'. '*Real life* every step of the way . . . practical *CEF goals at the core of the course . . . achieving purposeful real life objectives* . . . language that's natural and dependable – *guaranteed by the . . . Corpus . . . Authentic audio throughout* builds learners' ability to *understand the natural English of international speakers*'. 'Building global relationships . . . develop learners' *intercultural competence as a "fifth skill"*, leading to a *more sensitive and more effective communication* . . .'. (Rea et al., 2011)
50	M_GE_2	47	2.6 Related Developments When we reviewed the claims of current global coursebooks in Section 2.3 above, we noted the influence of changes that have been taking place around English Language Teaching. Firstly, we are seeing a dramatic spread of English as a lingua franca or world Englishes (Graddol, 2006, 2010; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Jenkins et al., 2011). English as a lingua franca is currently seen as a common currency, as it were, to enable communication at global level, be it face to face or through digital means. As Graddol (2006, 2010) predicts, the perception of the

			significance of English as a lingua franca may be different in years to come, indeed various world Englishes or different languages may claim dominant status. At the moment, however, English seems to be viewed as one of the necessary skills that can lead to social, academic and economic success. Many countries seem to have adopted or be interested in adopting Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) (i.e. a cross-curricular approach for learning content through a target language) and/or Teaching English to Young or Very Young Learners to enhance English language education. This situation challenges the foundations of traditional views of 'what constitutes good English'. As Jenkins et al. (2011: 284) put it: From an ELF perspective, then, once NNSEs are no longer learners of English, they are not the 'failed native speakers' of EFL, but – more often – highly skilled communicators who make use of their multilingual resources in ways not available to monolingual NSEs, and who are found to prioritize successful communication over narrow notions of 'correctness' in ways that NSEs, with their stronger attachment to their native English, may find more challenging. NNSEs may, for example, code-switch in order to promote solidarity and/or project their own cultural identity; or they may accommodate to their interlocutors from a wide range of first language backgrounds in ways that result in an 'error' in native English (Jenkins et al., 2011: 284). *NB* *ELF: English as lingua franca* *NSE: Native Speaker of English* *NNSE: Non-Native Speakers of English* This new perspective of English as Lingua Franca affects potentially all sorts of aspects of English Language Teaching including assessment.We explore this issue in more detail in Chapter 8 in relation to speaking skills.
51	M_GE_3	55	3.3 The External Evaluation …. Let us see the types of claim that can be made for materials in the introduction. The following example is part of the introduction taken from a recent EFL series. We have italicized certain terms and key concepts that we feel need further investigation:

			... • We have placed a special emphasis on representing *an accurate multicultural view of English as it is spoken today.* Many courses still represent the English-speaking world as being largely UK- and US-based. Considering the fact that there are now more non-native English speakers than native, we have also included a variety of accents from a wide range of countries and cultures.
52	M_GE_4	56	3.3 The External Evaluation …. To give an overview of some typical 'blurbs', we have selected a range of examples taken from EFL coursebooks. We may notice how certain 'key' words and expressions come up time and time again. … 1 'It enables you to learn English as it is used in our globalized world, to learn through English using information – rich topics and texts, and to learn about English as an international language'. 2 '. . . offers a comprehensive range of interactive digital components for use in class, out of class and even on the move. These include extra listening, video material and online practice'. 3 'Natural, real-world grammar and vocabulary help students to succeed in social, professional and academic settings'. 4 '. . . is a goals-based course for adults, which prepares learners to use English independently for global communication'.

Watkins (2014) *Learning to Teach English*

53	W_GE_1	7	The best teachers of a language are native speakers of that language. (See Chapter 2) Two of the many qualities that teachers need are to be able to use language naturally and be able to described language and its patterns. It could be argued that using language naturally is more likely to be typical of native speakers and being able to describe grammar patterns is a

			quality more typical of non-native speaker teachers. Also, some argue that non-native speaker teachers are more likely to be able to empathise with their learners because they may have been through the same learning experience. In addition, non-native speakers may be better placed to use the learners' first language constructively. However, these are all generalisations to some extent. In the end, teachers need many skills and qualities and being a good teacher is about working towards having as many of those qualities as possible, regardless of background.
54	W_GE_2	96	Learners are individuals Learners learn English for all sorts of different reasons. Some may be going on holiday to an English speaking country and want a few phrases to use during their stay. Others may be learning English because they want to study at an English medium university. Others may be learning because it is important for work and some younger learners may be learning simply because it is part of a school curriculum. Some may use English with native speakers of English, but the vast majority of learners actually use English with other non-native speakers. For example, a Swedish person and a Japanese person may find themselves using English because it is a language they can both operate in.

Theory, Culture (theory)

Ur (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching*

55	U_CT_1	218-219	Cultural content of teaching materials and classroom process The cultural content in an English course may come from four main sources: 1. The home culture of the students 2. The culture of the English-speaking peoples 3. The culture of other communities in the world 4. Global, or international culture 1. Home culture. The topics relate to the native country, such as those suggested under *The local environment* in Section 15.1 above. They encourage students to discuss local issues and relate to their own experiences, beliefs, customs, etc. The way the materials deal with the content may also reflect the

			home culture: not only the actual texts, but also the design. For example, in some places it is unacceptable to show bare-armed or bare-legged women in illustrations due to religious beliefs. Both materials and classroom process will also conform to the culture of learning of the local community: they may, for instance, give more, or fewer, activities based on student initiative. **2.** The culture of the (native) English-speaking peoples. For most of the twentieth century, most English language teaching materials, especially at more advanced levels, included a large component of British and American culture. They included not only literature (see Section 15.5 below), but also texts about British or American customs or institutions. The culture of other English-speaking countries was also occasionally referred to, but not very often. This is perhaps partly because the major ELT publishers were (and still are) British and American, and local publishers tended to follow their lead. In addition, it was assumed that the learner wanted to imitate a native speaker, not only in language proficiency, but also in cultural knowledge and behaviours. Today, in most institutions in non-English-speaking countries, the goal is the use of English as an international means of communication (see Unit 1: English -p. 219 teaching today, pp. 4-6), and cultural knowledge of the native-speaking communities is therefore less important. 3. The cultures of other speech communities. This component is noticeably more important in modern materials. A typice coursebook today will include units on different countries and peoples, and customs and literature from various sources. One reason is simply that because of faster and more widely used communications and increasing travel, people are far more aware of events and cultures elsewhere. Another, related, reason is that today's students are likely to need English to communicate with other English speakers with a different L1 and a different culture, and so they need a high degree of intercultural competence (see below). A starting point for the development of such competence is awareness of the diversity of world cultures. 4. Global cultural norms. Culture with a capital C has for some time been international. Museum displaying Asian or African art, concerts of music by European composers, and libraries with translated books from authors of all

			nationalities can be found in most countries. But it is a relatively recent phenomenon that certain norms and conventions (culture with a small ‘c’) have begun to be accepted and used worldwide. These include things like dress, politeness norms and forms of communication. They are used in contexts where it is likely that different cultures may meet, for example at conferences, at airports, in international business, at higher education institutions and in tourist destinations. Note that the ‘home’ cultural norms are maintained in more local contexts: the home, the town or village, in basic education, and community meeting-places. But in more international social interaction , global cultural norms have taken over. For example, formal dress for a man is likely to be a suit, while informal dress for teenagers may mean T-shirts and jeans; and formal introductions will usually be accompanied by hand-shaking. In the area of written communication, internationally accepted norms are even more obvious: e-mail conventions, for example, or the format of academic research papers or newspapers. All these are reflected in the content of modern coursebooks and English teaching.

Appendix 2

This section provides an overview of selected instances of textual material that was not included in the analysis.

1. Ur, *A Course in English Language Teaching*, p. 198

Disadvantages of a coursebook

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- **Cultural inappropriateness**. The content of a coursebook may be culturally inappropriate, which not only may make it irrelevant or uninteresting, but can also cause discomfort or even offence.

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The final decision as to whether or not to use a coursebook has to depend on your own teaching style, the resources available and the accepted policy in your school.

-> This passage was not included in the analysis as it does not match the criteria for inclusion in any of the categories. Although it deals with the topic of culture, the focus is on culture in the sense of culture of learning. As such, it does not meet the criteria for inclusion of textual material in Culture (practice) or Culture (theory), i.e. 1) fostering learners' intercultural awareness and competence, and/or 2) content and materials not relating to one dominant culture, especially a NS one.

2. Scrivener, *Learning Teaching*, p. 122

Appropriate methodology

Task 83: The impact of my teaching

In reading this book, have you come across ideas or techniques that have made you stop and think 'That's completely unsuitable for my students' or 'That is just impossible in this locality/culture'?

…

I rather hope you have, because the book isn't intended to offer any all-purpose solutions, but to suggest some possibilities and encourage you to enquire into how they might fit with your

own teaching and its context. The kind of techniques and teaching strategies discussed in this book represent my version of what seems to me current good practice and thinking. But it is one person's view based on my experience in the kinds of schools and countries I have worked in. It may well not be appropriate methodology in other schools, other places, other cultures.

There may be serious dangers in trying to 'export' en masse an approach that works in one place and assuming it will also work elsewhere. The right methodology is the right methodology for a context. It isn't a universal answer.

This is not to say that the right methodology is automatically whatever the status quo happens to be or what conservative thinkers in a locale believe to be best. Some teachers or managers may have a stake in maintaining things just as they are and reject any innovation or suggestion for improvement. In these cases, the teacher who feels that they have something important to offer has a difficult dilemma as to whether it is right to implement their innovation and how to do it most effectively.

-> This passage was not included in the analysis as it does not match the criteria for inclusion in any of the categories. Similarly to the previous example, it deals with the topic of culture, but the focus is on culture in the sense of culture of learning. As such, it does not meet the criteria for inclusion of textual material in Culture (practice) or Culture (theory), i.e. 1) fostering learners' intercultural awareness and competence, and/or 2) content and materials not relating to one dominant culture, especially a NS one.

3. McDonough et al., *Materials and Methods in ELT*, p. 296

Change, materials and methods

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7 The global trend of English being used as a lingua franca is affecting both theory, practice and materials. What kinds of language? What are the optimal targets for language learning? What kinds of language achievements are acceptable in exams and in the multilingual and multicultural world?

-> This passage was not included in the analysis as it does not match the criteria for inclusion in any of the categories. Although a first glimpse may suggest that this passage could potentially be included in Global role of English, it does not meet any of the criteria set out for this category, i.e. 1) the current proliferation of accents and varieties around the world, and/or 2) the changing role of English (from being a language previously studied by NNSs to

communicate with NSs to a language used for international communication among NNSs), and/or 3) the impact of the changing role of English on international communication interactions in terms of communication strategies and the language used in such interactions, and/or 4) the impact of the changing role of English on current materials, and/or 5) the distinction between NS and NNS English teachers. While the word *materials* is used, which may suggest that the passages corresponds to criterion 4), i.e. the impact of the changing role of English on current materials, no further information is provided about this topic. As such, the criterion is not fulfilled.

4. Watkins, *Learning to Teach English*, p. 81

What speaking involves

So, in order to express what they want to, speakers recall the appropriate words and organise them into units (using vocabulary and grammar awareness). They must also move lips, tongue and so on to form the appropriate sounds, monitor what comes out and be prepared to correct it. In addition to all this, speakers need an awareness of cultural conventions, which may limit what is appropriate to say or how something is expressed. For native speakers this happens exceptionally quickly, but is much slower when operating in a new language. As a result, even fairly high-level learners can find it difficult to participate effectively when in unpredictable conversational settings.

-> This passage was not included in the analysis as it does not match the criteria for inclusion in any of the categories. Although it is concerned with cultural awareness, the topic is not dealt with in terms of international communication. Moreover, the author also states that ʻfor native speakers this happens exceptionally quicklyʼ, which suggests that cultural awareness is mentiond here in relation to interactions in a NS environment.